

THE IMPACT OF DIVERSITY COURSES  
IN STUDENT AFFAIRS GRADUATE PROGRAMS  
ON MULTICULTURAL COMPETENCE  
OF STUDENT AFFAIRS PROFESSIONALS

By

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Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School  
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By

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The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of a diversity course in student affairs graduate programs by examining the level of multicultural competence of student affairs professionals. This study measured the multicultural competence of 211 student affairs professionals who are members of the National Association of Student Affairs Professionals. A mail survey collected the data in January 2004.

This study utilized the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 to measure multicultural competence in student affairs. This study also assessed the relationship between race and years of experience, as well as other demographics, with the multicultural competence of the participants.

In order to prepare multiculturally competent student affairs professionals, student affairs graduate programs are utilizing a diversity course requirement to educate its

students about working with diverse student populations. This study also collected information about the student affairs graduate programs of the participants using the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements.

Analysis of survey results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between those who had taken a diversity course and those who had not, despite a higher mean score on the MCSA-P2 for those who had done so. However, the majority of the respondents had not taken such a course, which was attributable to the age and years of experience of the respondents.

The results supported other research that shows individuals of color and gay, lesbian, and bisexual student affairs professionals are more cognizant of multicultural issues, as non-White participants and gay, lesbian, and bisexual individuals scored higher on the MCSA-P2 than Whites and heterosexuals, respectively. In addition, the years of experience of the participants had a slightly significant correlation with multicultural competence. As individual student affairs professionals gain experience in the field, they come into contact with more students from various backgrounds and presenting different situations. As such, more experienced student affairs professionals demonstrate higher levels of multicultural competence.

Implications of interest to student affairs graduate programs and to NASPA, and suggestions for future research using the MCSA-P2 were also presented.

## CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

### **Context of the Problem**

The majority of Whites will eventually become the minority as the rapid growth of various minority groups becomes a fact within the United States (Fears & Cohn, 2003). The Census Bureau reported that non-Hispanic whites remain the largest single group at roughly 200 million, but that population grew by less than 1% between April 2000 and July 2002 (Armas, 2003). The U.S. Census Bureau reported that the Hispanic population grew at nearly four times the rate of the U.S. population overall over the past two years, and Hispanics passed non-Hispanic blacks in size in 2001 (Armas, 2003). Accordingly, Hispanics are currently the nation's largest minority group (Armas, 2003).

College campuses reflect the national trend of more minority constituents (Dixon, 2001), not only due to a sheer increase in population, but also because of the use of systematic initiatives to increase the representation of minority students (El-Khawas, 1996). A major shift in college demographics is that non-white students will become the majority on many campuses (Dixon, 2001). It is expected college enrollment of Hispanic students will increase by 73% and African-American students by 23% between 1995 and 2015 (Carnevale, 1999).

In 2000, The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reported an increase from 15.4% in 1976 in total minority college students to 28.2% in 2000 (NCES, 2000). During that same time frame of 1976 to 2000, Hispanic students have increased from 3.5

to 9.5%, and Asian or Pacific Islander students have grown from 1.8 to 6.4% of the total fall enrollment in degree-granting institutions (NCES, 2000). Overall, diverse populations of college students have increased nationally on college campuses, continuing a shift from a predominately male, white, middle-class population perceived to be heterosexual, to a female, ethnically and racially mixed, poorer, and older one of varying sexual orientations (Talbot, 1992, 1996a).

Faculty, students, and administrators in higher education cite campus diversity as an important factor in creating the kind of learning environment that will prepare the next generation for effective participation in a multicultural world (Brown, 1998; Pope & Thomas, 2000; Woodard, 1998). Therefore, institutions of higher education strive to provide effective learning environments in reaction to the significant shift in enrollments on college campuses (Woodard, 1998). A better understanding of the campus climate for diverse populations is a critical component of enhancing diversity in institutions of higher education (Edgert, 1994; Pope & Thomas, 2000).

Student affairs professionals are those most actively involved in working with diverse populations, so their work is affected by these demographic changes (Brown, 1998; Creamer, Winston, & Miller, 2001; Dixon, 2001; Komives & Woodard, 1996; Liang & Sedlacek, 2003; Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Mueller, 1999). Upcraft (1998) states that the survival and effectiveness of the profession of student affairs relies on three main points: (a) providing basic services, (b) promoting students' academic development, and (c) responding to the increasing diversity of the students. Banning, Ahuna, & Hughes (2000) found numerous articles, books, and other professional texts that discuss the effects of the growing minority groups

on higher education. That professional literature provides a theoretical and practical basis for action by student affairs professionals (Banning et al., 2000).

Yet implications of an increasingly diverse student body include tensions, conflicts, overt racism, alienation, discrimination, and potentially unwelcoming environments on an increasingly diverse college campus (Boyer, 1993; Levine, 1993; Levine & Cureton, 1998; Mueller, 1999; Smith, 1990). Incidents of racial incidents and conflicts, racial and sexual harassment, and hate crimes based on race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation all continue to be reported in the national media and the *Chronicle of Higher Education* (Moore & Carter, 2002; Sanlo, Rankin, & Schoenberg, 2002; Talbot, 1992). Since the events of September 11, 2001, there has been increased scrutiny on international students who study in the United States, and the federal government is placing additional responsibilities on colleges and universities to monitor those students solely because of their ethnic background and country of origin (Arnone, 2002).

### **Statement of the Problem**

The changing population of college students toward a more diverse student body has provided numerous opportunities and challenges for higher education, including the need to give more attention to cultural dynamics on the college campus (Brown, 1998; Pope & Thomas, 2000; Woodard, 1998). Problems, tensions, and conflicts continue to occur on college campuses based on race, sexual orientation, and ethnic background (Moore & Carter, 2002; Sanlo et al., 2002; Talbot, 1992; Upcraft, 1998).

Student affairs professionals are the educators who are among those most actively involved in working with diverse populations and creating a campus community (Brown, 1998; Creamer et al., 2001; Dixon, 2001; Komives & Woodard, 1996; Liang & Sedlacek,

2003; Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991; McEwen & Roper, 1994; Mueller, 1999). Upcraft (1998) states that the profession of student affairs faces a powerful challenge in the increasing diversity of college students. It is important to ensure that student affairs professionals are adequately prepared to work with a diverse student body in order to enhance development of college students and improve the campus community (Brown, 1998; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Mueller & Pope, 2003; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Talbot 1992, 1996a). In other words, student affairs professionals need to be multiculturally competent; the concept of multicultural competence in student affairs, as defined by Pope and Reynolds (1997), is made up of three components: (a) awareness, (b) knowledge, and (c) skills (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2002; Mueller, 1999; Mueller & Pope, 2003; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Pope, Reynolds, & Mueller, 2004).

Student affairs preparation programs have been charged with improving the preparation for student affairs professionals to work with diverse populations, with the goal of them becoming multiculturally competent (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). The most recent set of Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) Standards and Guidelines at the Masters-Level Graduate Program for Student Affairs Professionals reiterates the need for the inclusion of diversity issues in the graduate training for student affairs (CAS, 2002; Creamer & Winston, 2002; Flowers, 2003). Improvements are being made to student affairs graduate programs to help prepare new professionals to work with diverse students, or to become multiculturally competent (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; McEwen & Talbot, 1998; Talbot, 1996a, 1996b). Specific courses about diversity issues are

becoming more commonly required within graduate programs for student affairs but are not required by all programs (Flowers, 2003; Pope et al., 2004).

In developing the concept of multicultural competence within student affairs, Pope and Reynolds (1997) envisioned that student affairs professionals would obtain basic multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills to work effectively with a diverse student population to demonstrate that they are multiculturally competent student affairs professionals (Pope et al., 2004). By assessing the multicultural competence of student affairs professionals, this study will examine the impact of diversity course requirements in graduate programs in student affairs and whether student affairs professionals do possess multicultural competence according to Pope and Reynolds (1997).

### **Theoretical Framework**

#### **Boyer's Campus Community**

In his report about campus life, *In Search of Community*, Boyer (1990) discussed the need for creating a campus community to prevent a fragmented student body. He found that the quality of campus life has been declining because of the diminished commitment to teaching and learning, and that there are two needs in higher education: to begin the process of community building across the nation, and to find ways to create and strengthen the campus community (Boyer, 1990).

Boyer “conveys the goal of intellectual and personal growth and understanding for every member of the college community” with his depiction of a campus community (Pope & Thomas, 2000, p. 116). Boyer (1990) proposed a set of six principles for institutions of higher education to follow in order to create a community of learning on a college campus. By creating a more integrative vision of community in higher education,

colleges could follow a standard to make decisions to become the type of community that a college should be by following six principles of a (a) purposeful, (b) open, (c) just, (d) disciplined, (e) caring and (f) celebrative community (Boyer, 1990).

Pope and Thomas (2000) reiterate that Boyer's concept of a campus community is what each higher education institution should aspire to create, particularly as society becomes more complex with changing demographics. Building community in higher education requires leadership at the highest level, and the president of the university should inspire a vision to guide the institution toward those goals (Boyer, 1990; Brown, 1991, 1998). Brown (1991, 1998) discussed the necessary leadership from a campus president in supporting efforts to enhance campus diversity, and how those leadership efforts should be visible to all campus constituencies in endorsing diversity efforts to be successful. Those efforts include ensuring that there has been sufficient training about diversity on campuses (Brown, 1991, 1998; Levine & Cureton, 1992). Specifically, one must ensure that those who work on a college campus are able to adequately develop such a campus community by possessing the appropriate level of skills, awareness, and knowledge about diverse student populations (Brown, 1991, 1998; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Talbot, 1992, 1996a).

Student affairs professionals are typically among the persons most responsible for creating and nurturing a sense of campus community (Boyer, 1993; Brown, 1998; Levine, 1993; Liang & Sedlacek, 2003), as the mission of student affairs is to treat the student as a whole person and to address all aspects of the development of students (Fenske, 1991). Through professional development, formal training in graduate programs, and through work experience, student affairs professionals are becoming more

prepared for working with a diverse student population (McEwen & Talbot, 1998). A graduate diversity course is one method used to prepare student affairs graduate students (Flowers, 2003; Pope et al., 2004), giving the future student affairs professional the tools to create a campus community as envisioned by Boyer (1990).

Professional standards for teaching in the K-12 school system have reinforced the recent need for schools of education to demonstrate how they are including new knowledge about student diversity in their teacher preparation programs (Holm & Horn, 2003; Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 1992; National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2002; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2003). Similarly, the most recent set of CAS Standards and Guidelines at the Masters-Level Graduate Program for Student Affairs Professionals reiterates the need for the inclusion of diversity issues in the graduate training for student affairs (CAS, 2002; Flowers, 2003). CAS states that programs should include studies of student characteristics and how those characteristics impact the effects of college, satisfaction with the college experience, student involvement in college, and factors which correlate with student persistence and attrition (CAS, 2002). The CAS standards state that those student characteristics should include, but are not limited to, age, gender, ethnicity, race, religion, sexual identity, academic ability and preparation, learning styles, socioeconomic status, national origin, immigrant status, disability, developmental status, cultural background and orientation, transfer status, and family situation (CAS, 2002).

The result of K-12 teachers exploring and experiencing diversity through courses and internships is that “they are better prepared to understand and create meaningful connections for diverse learners” (Holm & Horn, 2003, p. 376). Similarly, in order to

meet the needs of increasingly diverse college students, student affairs professionals must be prepared to meet their needs by also understanding and creating meaningful connections (Upcraft, 1998).

Upcraft (1998) defines effective efforts by student affairs professionals working with diverse college students as

focusing our services and programs on traditionally underrepresented groups, both individually and collectively...helping both minority and majority groups relate to one another in positive and collaborative ways...[and] going beyond a narrow definition of diversity to include meeting the needs of our students who differ on other dimensions (p. 230).

### **Multicultural Competence**

Pope and Reynolds (1997) stated that student affairs professionals need to obtain basic multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills to work effectively with a diverse student population and to be considered multiculturally competent student affairs professionals. Their work represented the first time that multicultural competence has been applied to the field of student affairs (Pope & Mueller, 2000). Multiculturally competent student affairs practitioners are important not only to work with diverse student populations, but also to create and sustain a diverse teaching and learning environment at their institutions (Pope & Reynolds, 1997).

Taken from the literature of multicultural counseling, the concept of multicultural competence has been extended by Pope and Reynolds (1997) to the profession of student affairs by asserting that multicultural knowledge, skills, and awareness must be integrated into the work of student affairs (Pope et al., 2004). Mueller (1999) used the Pope and Reynolds (1997) framework to define multicultural competence as a concept that considers awareness of one's own assumptions, values, and biases; an understanding of

the viewpoints of culturally different individuals; and developing appropriate intervention strategies and techniques. Multicultural competence is generally considered to be a tripartite model, of multicultural awareness, multicultural knowledge, and multicultural skills (Mueller, 1999; Pope et al., 2004).

In their model of multicultural competence for student affairs, Pope and Reynolds (1997) expanded the competency areas to seven major groups of skills for student affairs professionals, which include: (a) administrative, management, and leadership skills; (b) theory and translation skills; (c) interpersonal and helping skills; (d) ethical and legal knowledge and decision-making skills; (e) training and teaching skills; (f) assessment and evaluation skills; and (g) multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills (p. 268).

Pope and Mueller (2001) designed an instrument, the Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2), specifically to assess the level of multicultural competence of student affairs professionals based on the concept created by Pope and Reynolds (1997) (Mueller, 1999). Using the MCSA-P2, along with a measure for social desirability and a descriptive questionnaire that gathers information about the respondents' graduate school experience, this study assessed the impact of a diversity course requirement and multicultural competence among student affairs practitioners.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program by examining the level of multicultural competence within a selected sample of student affairs professionals in the United States. This study used Pope and Reynolds' (1997) concept of multicultural competence in student affairs, and an instrument (the MCSA-P2) specifically created to assess multicultural competence

in student affairs (Mueller, 1999; Pope & Mueller, 2001; Pope et al., 2004). In order to create a campus community based on Boyer's (1990) principles, a multiculturally competent student affairs professional will need to possess the knowledge, awareness, and skills to work effectively with a diverse student population (Pope and Reynolds, 1997). In addition, this study examined the relationship between multicultural competence and the race and years of experience of the student affairs professional.

### **Method**

The data for this study was collected using three self-report measures: The Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2), (Pope & Mueller, 2000); the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability-Short Form C (MC-SDS), (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, Reynolds, 1982), and a questionnaire adapted from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) (Flowers, 2003).

The following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Is there a difference between multicultural competence of student affairs professionals who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program, and those who did not?
2. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the race of student affairs professionals?
3. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the years of experience of student affairs professionals?

### **Definition of Terms**

#### **Diverse Populations**

Diverse populations of college students are students such as African-American students, Hispanic students, Asian students, biracial students, and other racial minorities.

Based on personal communication with the MCSA-P2's author, the instrument was not designed to include gay, lesbian, or bisexual students but is limited to racial minorities (J. A. Mueller, personal communication, January 8, 2003). Used interchangeably with "multicultural," "diversity," or "multiculturalism" when indicating a population of college students.

### **Diversity Course**

A course "developed and taught with the express intent of promoting the development of culturally proficient student affairs professionals who were knowledgeable and sensitive to the histories, circumstances, and needs of culturally and racially diverse individuals" (Flowers, 2003, p. 5).

### **Multicultural Competence**

A conceptual framework developed by Pope and Reynolds (1997). Multicultural competence is generally considered to be a tripartite model, of multicultural awareness, multicultural knowledge, and multicultural skills (Mueller, 1999; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Pope et al., 2004). Multicultural competence considers awareness of one's own assumptions, values, and biases; an understanding of the viewpoints of culturally different individuals; and developing appropriate intervention strategies and techniques (Mueller, 1999).

### **Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2)**

The instrument designed by Pope and Mueller (2000) to measure multicultural competence within student affairs.

## **Student Affairs**

The term “student affairs” describes the organizational unit on college campuses that is responsible for out of class education and the development of students.

Professionals who work in student affairs have traditionally served in functional areas such as financial aid, residence halls, counseling, judicial programs, career planning, new student orientation, multicultural programming, and more (Mueller, 1999; Miller & Winston, 1991).

## **Student Affairs Graduate Programs**

The terms “student affairs graduate programs,” “student affairs preparation programs,” and “master’s degree preparatory program in student affairs,” are all terms that refer to student affairs graduate programs. Student affairs graduate programs typically meet the criteria set forth in the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) Professional Preparation Program Standards for Student Services/Student Development preparation programs (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000). Those criteria are (a) a full-time faculty member to direct the program, (b) at least four courses about student services/affairs/development and the college student/environment, (c) a two year curriculum or its equivalent, and (d) at least one required and supervised practicum/field experience (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000; Flowers, 2003).

## **Student Affairs Professionals**

This study surveyed student affairs professionals who are members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). Those individuals work within the organizational unit of student affairs.

### **Years of Experience**

Participants were asked to self-identify the number of years working full-time as a student affairs professional. Respondents were asked to exclude the years in graduate school in their responses.

### **Significance of the Study**

Although recent studies have broadly determined the necessary skills and competencies for entry-level professionals in student affairs (Robertson, 1999; Waple, 2000), diversity issues were only a small part of those studies. This study explored more thoroughly the actual effect of graduate preparation programs on diversity issues with the use of a diversity course requirement, which would impact the practice of student affairs.

Talbot (1992, 1996a) found that students in graduate student affairs preparation programs do not represent a diverse student population, and those students have a limited exposure to diverse populations before entering those graduate programs. White female student affairs professionals dominate the profession in numbers (Liang & Sedlacek, 2003; Talbot, 1992, 1996a).

In addition, several studies conducted approximately ten years ago have revealed that little or no training in multicultural issues has been included in student affairs preparation programs (Hoover, 1994; McEwen & Roper, 1994b; Talbot, 1992, 1996a; Upcraft, 1998). Beyond those studies conducted in the early 1990's and the limited study by King and Howard-Hamilton (2003), there is little current research that assesses how the knowledge, skills, and awareness of diverse student populations may influence those who are in the profession of student affairs (Pope & Reynolds, 1997). Accordingly, this study adds to the literature by examining the impact of diversity courses on multicultural

competence in student affairs. This study also assesses the correlation between race and years of experience and the multicultural competence of student affairs professionals.

Pope and Reynolds' (1997) model of multicultural competence for student affairs professionals, based on knowledge, skills, and awareness of diverse populations, has emerged as a model in the past two years (Pope et al., 2004). This study will update research conducted in the early to mid-1990's, and will provide a general assessment of the level of multicultural competence of student affairs professionals. This study will further utilize the concept of multicultural competence within student affairs and test it with a potentially different subset of student affairs professionals. The population of the student affairs professional association, the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), will provide the sample to be tested. Previous use of multicultural competence in student affairs has used a similar professional association, the American College Personnel Association (ACPA).

Further, this study will provide additional information about the psychometric properties of the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 (MCSA-P2). Currently, there are limited studies that have evaluated the instrument, and this study will continue to examine those psychometric properties (Pope & Mueller, 2000; Mueller, 1999).

Finally, this study benefits student affairs graduate programs by providing a general assessment of those programs currently including a diversity course requirement, and possible other factors that lead to multicultural competence. Such knowledge can help graduate program faculty develop an appropriate curriculum that would assist in preparing multiculturally competent student affairs professionals.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The study used a self-report mechanism for student affairs professionals to indicate their perceptions of their own ability to demonstrate knowledge, skills, and awareness on diversity, so that they rely on their own best judgment and there is no independent source of corroboration. Although this study will use the social desirability scale of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability-Short Form C (MC-SDS), (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, Reynolds, 1982) to help reduce such bias, there is still may be a desire by the respondents to be considered multiculturally competent student affairs professionals. Respondents could underrate their abilities because they acknowledge how much more they would have to learn, or overrate them because they ate so aware of their growth in this area (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

The study may be limited by only sampling from a portion of one professional association within student affairs. This study only focuses on members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA). Younger professionals may not be members of any professional organization due to lack of guidance and prohibitive costs to join. Finally, those who choose to join may represent the more active and engaged student affairs professionals who may make an extra effort to be multiculturally competent student affairs professionals.

Another possible limitation of the study is the exclusion of sexual orientation in the definition of diversity as used in the term of multicultural competence. This study is strictly limited to racial and ethnic minorities on college campuses, and does not extend to the area of gay, lesbian, or bisexual (GLB) student issues. Although many definitions of diversity and multiculturalism do include GLB student issues, the primary instrument

used in this study was designed with just racial and ethnic minorities in mind (J.A. Mueller, personal communication, January 8, 2003). This same type of study could easily focus on the level of competence of student affairs professionals on GLB issues by itself.

Finally, there are many variables that may lead to an individual being multiculturally competent in student affairs, which are not limited to the material learned within a graduate program in a diversity course on student affairs. The number of years of experience indicated by the participants will vary as they assess their own professional backgrounds to respond to the item on the instrument. Also, seasoned student affairs professionals with numerous years of experience in the field are likely not to have had a required course on diversity issues within their graduate programs, but their level of multicultural competence could be very strong. Although this study will correlate some of the variables to multicultural competence, other factors may impact that information.

### **Outline of the Remainder of the Study**

In Chapter 2 a review of the literature as it relates to student affairs graduate preparation programs, competencies for the practice of student affairs, and the development of multicultural competence for student affairs is presented. In Chapter 3, a discussion of the proposed methodology is presented, including details about research design, description of the sample, instrumentation, data collection procedures, and data analysis. Chapter 4 reports the results and statistical analysis of the data and Chapter 5 presents the summary of the study, a discussion of the results, the implication of the findings, limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

## CHAPTER 2

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### **Changing Demographics for College Students**

Persons of color will become the majority in the United States within the twenty-first century (Dixon, 2001; Fears & Cohn, 2003; Zusman, 1999). The U.S. Census Bureau reported that the Hispanic population grew at nearly four times the rate of the U.S. population overall over the past two years, reinforcing that Hispanics are the nation's largest minority group, and Hispanics passed non-Hispanic blacks in size in 2001 (Armas, 2003). In addition, the Census Bureau reported that non-Hispanic whites, who make up about 7 of 10 U.S. residents, remain the largest single group at roughly 200 million. That population grew by less than 1% between April 2000 and July 2002 (Armas, 2003). The U.S. Census Bureau considers Hispanics an ethnicity, not a race, so people of Hispanic origin can consider themselves any race (Armas, 2003).

At the same time, college enrollment within the United States has nearly doubled over the past twenty-five years to more than 14 million students in 1994 (Zusman, 1999). Further, those enrollments are expected to set records through the first decade of the twenty-first century across the United States, with a 10% increase of high school graduates during that time (Kuh, 2001).

As a result of the national change in demographics and large increases in college enrollments, there are different students on today's college campuses. Compared to twenty years ago, students in colleges and universities in the United States are very

different in their demographic makeup (National Center for Education Statistics, 1996; Zusman, 1999). The National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) shows an increase from 15.4% in 1976 in total minority college students to 28.2% in 2000 (NCES, 2000). Dixon (2001) reiterates predictions that non-white students will become the majority on campus within the next decade. Further, by 2010, it is estimated that the number of public school students from a mixed ethnic background will reach six million and will eventually trickle into college and university settings (Dixon, 2001).

### **Challenges of Diverse Student Populations for a College Campus**

These shifts in demographic characteristics of college students are making the role of higher education more important and more challenging than at any other time in history (Kuh, 2001; Levine, 1993; Smith, 1990). Woodard (1998) states that

the characteristics, competencies, and interests of today's and tomorrow's students are so diverse and reflective of societal needs that institutions will need to continually redesign the learning environment in order to effectively meet the educational and career interests, preparation, and needs of these students (p. 8).

Tensions as a result of diverse student populations have been called one of the major crisis points in higher education (Altbach, 1993). Boyer (1990), Levine (1993), Levine and Cureton (1998), and Mueller (1999) also cite tensions, conflicts, and unwelcoming environments as one of the challenges presented to campus communities with an increasingly diverse college campus. Fenske, Rund, and Contento (2000) describe the pressure of new communities being formed within an increasingly diverse student body, and how interactions between and among those groups may result in increased tensions.

Smith (1990) describes the education of minority students as inadequate, and finds an increasingly pessimistic tone in the literature that assesses how higher education has met that need. The campus climate for minority students has been shown to include overt

racism, alienation, and discrimination as well as other problems (Smith, 1990). Barr and Strong (1998) state that “resistance to multiculturalism is well-entrenched in higher education. The structure of higher education is a well-oiled, rationalized, inherently racist system providing many privileges to the dominant groups. Why would anyone who benefits from this system want to change it?” (p. 88)

Further, Smith (1990) states that “not only will successful involvement of diverse populations mark the difference between institutional survival and failure, and between educational quality and mediocrity, it will have significant social implications as well” (p. 54). Fenske et al. (2000) call the need to acknowledge and understand multicultural communities on a college campus to be the most critical issues within higher education to advance students’ goals and institutional objectives.

The former president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching and Chancellor of the State University System of New York, Ernest L. Boyer is considered to be one of the foremost leaders in higher education, who advocated for the improvement of the quality of the educational experience for each student (McDonald, 2002; McDonald et al., 2000).

Boyer (1993) similarly felt that the changes in demographics on college campuses were a crucial problem in higher education, saying that

the increased diversity stirred tensions and resulted in a growing separation among students along racial and ethnic lines at a time when there was growing evidence that the push for social justice that had so shaped the priorities of higher education twenty years before had dramatically diminished (p. 324).

### Responding to those Challenges

Because of this increasingly diverse student population, colleges will have to respond effectively to different types of students (Pope & Thomas, 2000; Zusman, 1999). In particular, Zusman (1999) says that those changes

require college climates and curricula that welcome students' differing backgrounds and perspectives as opportunities to enlarge the range of voices and experiences and to build upon students' diverse language and cultural backgrounds in preparing them for a more interdependent global society. (p. 120-121).

An open letter in the *Washington Post* in 1998 asserted that colleges and universities must make a deliberate effort to build healthy and diverse learning environments for the future of higher education. The letter, entitled "On the Importance of Diversity in Higher Education" was endorsed by nearly 50 national professional associations within higher education, including the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), and the American Association for Higher Education (AAHE). This statement also served as a call to action for higher education to take the leadership role in this mission (Wilkinson & Rund, 2000; American Council on Education, 1998).

Dey and Hurtado (1999) call for colleges to continue restructuring, in order to become multicultural environments as a result of those increases in minority students on college campuses. Altbach (1993) directly states that the increased diversity on a college campus "has meant that the student community is less of a community. There are fewer common bonds among students and less of a common culture" (p. 206). He cites Boyer (1990)'s *In Search of Community* as a call for the need to create a campus community to solve problems such as ethnic divisions and declining participation of minority students on a college campus (Altbach, 1993).

### Boyer's Vision of a Campus Community

Numerous educators have stated that one aspect of the mission of higher education is to create a sense of community in higher education amongst its students, citing Boyer's (1990) work (Altbach, 1993; Glassick, 1999; McDonald et al., 2000; Pope & Thomas, 2000). A college seeking to deliberately create a campus community is more than just defining a campus community, as such a college is seeking opportunities to do so (Coye, 1997). Gardner (1989) calls for the modern community to include wholeness incorporating diversity; caring, trust, and teamwork; group maintenance and government; development of young people; and connections to the outside world.

Not only do campuses face problems trying to create community in general, diversity issues provide a further challenge toward that goal. Strange (1996) states "the creation and maintenance of community on campus is particularly challenging to educators, especially at institutions that are redundant or fragmented by various subgroups" (p. 263). Coye (1997) discusses the differences with today's college students and how they might miss out on a campus community if they are part-time, or choose to take advantage of distance education rather than a traditional campus setting.

In his report about campus life, *In Search of Community*, Boyer (1990) surveyed college presidents and chief student affairs officers in order to study the social conditions on the college campus for the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. This report was intended to showcase the values that exist within a community of learning, and he believed that it was necessary to create a more integrated concept of community in higher education (Boyer, 1990; McDonald et al., 2000;).

Considered a “pertinent document for generations” (Glassick, 1999, p. 22), Boyer’s (1990) *In Search of Community* discussed the purpose and necessity of creating a campus community. Boyer’s (1990) findings indicated that the quality of campus life has been declining because of the diminished commitment to teaching and learning on a college campus. The report identifies two needs in higher education: to begin the process of community building across the nation, and to find ways to create and strengthen the campus community (Boyer, 1990).

Boyer (1990) reports numerous problems on college campuses related to differences amongst students, including racial intimidation/harassment (p. 18), racial tensions and hostilities (p. 27), and describes the issue of interracial/intercultural relations as one of the major campus life issues of greatest concern, reinforcing the implications that a diverse college campus is significant to the community of learning.

Glassick (1999) emphasizes that Boyer believed that the quality of the institution relied upon the “heads and hearts of the individuals in it” (p. 23), and that the goal of education is to help students understand that they are part of a larger community to which they are accountable. Boyer (1990) and Brown (1998) state that building community in higher education requires leadership at the highest level, and that the president of the university should inspire a vision to guide the institution toward those goals. At the same time, partnerships between academic affairs and student affairs to create learning environments are crucial (Schroeder, 1999).

Sanlo et al. (2002) cite Boyer's work to reiterate that

in order to build a vital community of learning a college or university must provide an environment where: intellectual life is central and where faculty and students work together to strengthen teaching and learning, where freedom of expression is uncompromisingly protected and where civility is powerfully affirmed, where the dignity of all individuals is affirmed and where equality of opportunity is vigorously pursued, and where the well-being of each member is sensitively supported (p. 12).

In the report *In Search of Community*, Boyer (1990) proposed a set of six principles for institutions of higher education to follow in order to create a community of learning on a college campus. By creating a more integrative vision of community in higher education, colleges could follow a standard to make decisions to become the type of community that a college should be by following six principles (Boyer, 1990). Boyer (1990) defines these six principles as an effective formula to define the kind of community each higher education institution should strive to be. By following the standards, the institution of higher education would be able to respond to many of the numerous challenges facing the campus life of a college or university (Boyer, 1990). Coye (1997) describes these principles as the heart of the institution.

Boyer's (1990) six principles are:

First, a college or university is an educationally purposeful community, a place where faculty and students share academic goals and work together to strengthen teaching and learning on the campus.

Second, a college or university is an open community, a place where freedom of expression is uncompromisingly protected and where civility is powerfully affirmed. Third, a college or university is a just community, a place where the sacredness of the person is honored and where diversity is aggressively pursued.

Fourth, a college or university is a disciplined community, a place where individuals accept their obligations to the group and where well-defined governance procedures guide behaviors for the common good.

Fifth, a college or university is a caring community, a place where the well-being of each member is sensitively supported and where service to others is encouraged.

Sixth, a college or university is a celebrative community, one in which the heritage of the institution is remembered and where rituals affirming both tradition and change are widely shared. (p. 7-8).

While all six of the principles focus on the goal of creating a learning community within higher education, the concepts of the just community, the open community, and the caring community all relate very directly to the necessity that students from all backgrounds are given the appropriate level of support by the campus (Boyer, 1990). “Academic communities must be developed in which people learn to respect and value one another for their differences, while at the same time defining the values shared by all those who join the university as scholars and as citizens” (Boyer, 1990, p. 35). More specifically, the diverse populations on a college campus have resulted in “disturbing evidence that deeply ingrained prejudices persist. Faculty, administrators, and students are now asking whether community can be achieved” (George, 2001, p. 4).

A just community honors the “sacredness of the person” and celebrates and aggressively pursues diversity (p. 7). George (2001) interprets Boyer’s just community as a university that provides “support for all populations including gender, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, older students, international, different religious groups” (p. 6). An open community promotes civility on a college campus, particularly by those who are in the leadership role to make an example (p. 21). Finally, a caring community sensitively supports the well-being of each member (p. 47). Those principles all support the need for those who provide leadership to be able to work with a diverse student body.

Since Boyer’s study in 1990, college campuses have faced more issues related to the growing number of college students from a racial minority group (Levine & Cureton, 1998). The desire to create a community of learning in an institution of higher education is still important to college presidents—97% of the college and university presidents surveyed said that they strongly believed in “the importance of community” (Boyer,

1993; Carnegie Foundation & American Council on Education, 1989). Brown (1998) reiterates the responsibility of a college president in endorsing work that enhances campus diversity as well as demonstrating leadership in working with trustees, alumni, and donors in addition to individuals on campus.

George's (2001) study researched how college students felt connected to a university based on Boyer's six principles of community. She focused only on one university but found that students did find almost each item to be very important or important in feeling connected. As such, colleges are making a difference in reaching the students (George, 2001).

In the pursuit of the campus community as described by Boyer (1990), there has been an increase in the training about diversity issues on a college campus for faculty, staff, and students (Boyer, 1990; Talbot, 1992). Most specifically, information about working with a diverse college campus has been included in student affairs graduate programs, to prepare student affairs professionals to work directly with students in a variety of fields with the goal of aiding student learning (McEwen & Talbot, 1998).

### **Implementing a Campus Community**

Campus communities are deliberately designed, with shared purpose, shared values, and sacrifices (Boyer, 1990; George, 2001). The creation of such communities provide lessons for faculty, staff, and students who are working to build those communities of learning (George, 2001). The National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC) (1997) suggests that in order for those institutions to overcome challenges of today's society, they must become learning communities, be student-centered and committed to teaching excellence, and should aim to develop a

healthy learning environment for students, faculty and staff. To reach those goals, institutions should follow a set of principles that include access and opportunity, defining itself as a learning community, and providing graduates with skills, attitudes, and values necessary for success in life and citizenship (NASULGC, 1997).

Similarly, Bogue (2002) describes colleges and universities as places that develop knowledge and skill in students, but which strive beyond those boundaries to also be “sanctuaries of our personal and civic values, incubators of intellect and integrity. And so the values that mark the community of higher learning are the values that are most likely to be caught by our students” (pp. 7-8).

Watson, Terrell, Wright, Bonner, and Cuyjet (2002) call for institutions to focus not only on academic needs of students, but also to meet their social and psychosocial needs. In particular, the most important part of the collegiate experience is engagement in an out of class experience, especially for the minority student (Watson et al., 2002). Many of the negative experiences of minority students discussed in Watson et al.’s (2002) study demonstrate that institutions are not committed to promoting diversity and multiculturalism, and they have created communities which are uninterested in meeting the needs of a diverse student body.

In another study, the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) asked senior officials how changes in higher education would affect the educational experiences of college students (Johnson & Cheatham, 1999). One of the major issues submitted to ACPA was the access and success for diverse learners, in addition to collaborative partnerships, learning and teaching in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, and more (Johnson & Cheatham, 1999).

Dixon (2001) cites the changing expectations of the consumers of higher education as one factor supporting diversity issues on a college campus. That support is reiterated in the inclusion of a measure assessing campus diversity within the rankings of colleges and universities by *U.S. News and World Report* magazine as well as the increasing numbers of parents and students who are examining diversity and multicultural environments in their considerations of colleges (Dixon, 2001).

### **Student Affairs' Role in Creating A Campus Community**

All of these calls for a focus of diversity issues in higher education fall into the same concepts of a campus community proposed by Boyer (1990). The president of a university is the individual most responsible for setting the agenda and leading an institution toward a campus community (Boyer, 1990; Brown, 1998). However, in order to create campus communities with diverse student populations, college and universities typically look to student affairs professionals (Boyer, 1993; Brown, 1998; Creamer et al., 2001; Dixon, 2001; Komives & Woodard, 1996; Levine, 1993; Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Mueller, 1999). Upcraft (1998) describes the increase in college student diversity as “a powerful factor in the future of student affairs,” (p. 228) where he predicts the profession of student affairs will have to focus services and programs on traditionally underrepresented students to create a community and a dialogue between majority and minority students. In response to these changes in higher education, institutions have greatly expanded their student affairs staffs, created new codes of conduct, and improved orientation programs to meet those needs (Boyer, 1993; 1990).

Because student affairs practitioners have such a strong influence in shaping and managing significant parts of the university environment (Brown, 1998; Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991), they can “directly influence the formation of a multicultural environment, build an inclusive campus environment, and transform institutional structures” (Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991, p. 367). As Levine (1993) points out,

in general, the administration has delegated the issue of diversity to student affairs. They have hired staffs that include larger numbers of underrepresented populations than the rest of their campuses, developed staff training programs on diversity issues, established new residence options, added counseling services targeted at underrepresented groups, and created an array of cultural activities for the entire campus community. If student affairs had not filled that void, there is no evidence that any other group on campus would have (p. 337).

Komives and Woodard (1996) state that student affairs staff are part of the connections within various constituencies on campus, including students, faculty, and the broader community, making them in the best position to succumb to the pressure of creating and nurturing the campus community. Further, student affairs professionals are an important part of creating the cultural interventions that bring people together into a community, including creating rituals (Komives & Woodard, 1996). Varlotta (1997) states that student affairs staff serve as “catalysts for change” as those institutions rely on the experience and expertise of the student affairs staff who “as a group, have done more than any other group of college personnel in meeting the challenges of diversity and advancing its objectives” (p. 126, citing Brown, 1988). Finally, the importance of being multiculturally competent as a student affairs professional relates directly to the mission and ethics of student affairs (Brown, 1998; McEwen & Roper, 1994a).

Student affairs functions at colleges and universities include, but are not limited to, some of the following units: orientation, academic advising, international student services, residence life, services for students with disabilities, community service and leadership programs, student judicial affairs, community service and leadership programs, and working with special student populations including racial and ethnic minorities and gay, lesbian, bisexual, or transgender offices (Sandeen, 1996).

Increased tensions involving multicultural groups (Altbach, 1993) provide a new challenge for student affairs professionals, who frequently manage such issues (Boyer, 1993; Brown, 1998; Levine, 1993; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Mueller, 1999). In order to meet their professional development needs, growth in student affairs and related publications address issues related to the development, needs, and experiences of ethnic minorities, which help the student affairs professional become more self-aware in order to serve those diverse populations (Banning et al., 2000; Talbot, 1996b).

A major change in student affairs literature demonstrated by a longitudinal assessment within a journal of one of the national student affairs professional associations indicated an expansion of understanding the complexity of diverse students, not just minority students adjusting to campus life (Banning et al., 2000). Banning et al.'s (2000) research showed that from 1974 to 1984, the majority of the articles within the *NASPA Journal* focused on the ethnic minority student, including individual, group characteristics, and institutional programs related to those students. Yet from 1984 to 1994, more articles discussing campus conditions affecting ethnic or racial groups, institutional racism, pluralism, multiculturalism, and cultural competence of student affairs staff began to appear within the *NASPA Journal*. Generally speaking, the

condition of the campus environment began to be more of a crucial topic within the field of student affairs as evidenced by the literature within the *NASPA Journal* (Banning et al., 2000).

Yet Watson et al. (2002) criticize student affairs for still not getting a university community to address the differences which exist between various populations, even though there have been years of programming, workshops, classes, and other forms of training to develop those skills. Buck (2001) states that there is a need for student affairs professionals to shift from keeping the individual student as the problem toward examining the environment as part of the problem, and to focus on institutional racism with a need to create change.

Fenske et al. (2000) call for student affairs professionals to encourage collaboration through effective communication to promote better relationships with those groups. Further, they describe some campuses as “out of sync with the expanding multicultural campus” in campus programs, staffing, and organizational structures (p. 573).

As student affairs professionals are increasingly asked to address issues of diversity and multiculturalism on campus, (Levine, 1993; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Mueller, 1999), guidelines are provided for their work. For example, in *The Principles of Good Practice for Student Affairs* set forth by Blimling, Whitt, et al. (1999), one of those principles states that building supportive and inclusive communities is an example of good practice. Specifically, they call for colleges to create diverse learning communities which are both supportive and inclusive, and which value diversity, promote social

responsibility, promote a sense of belonging, and foster interactions among all members (Blimling, Whitt, et al., 1999; Whitt & Blimling, 2000).

College campuses such as Pennsylvania State University, Carson-Newman College, Messiah College, and others have directly utilized Boyer's concepts of community as an essential framework for student affairs practitioners who are charged with creating that vital community of learning (McDonald et al., 2002). Boyer's (1990) ideals provide perfect framework for the creation of a just community, one that remains open and equitable to all. For example, Pennsylvania State University utilized Boyer's (1990) ideals about a campus community to advocate for a hate-free environment on its campus, working past differences in ethnicity, sexual orientation, and political ideals. Based on Boyer's (1990) beliefs that campus communities should provide supportive and inclusive environments, a campus climate survey organized by student affairs professionals provided crucial feedback to that staff to better work with the diverse student population (Moore & Carter, 2002). The student affairs staff created a document of Essential Values of Penn State, which called for students to embrace those values of personal and academic integrity, respect for the dignity of all persons and a willingness to learn from the differences in people, ideas, and opinions, and more (Carter, 2003).

Nevertheless, the efforts within student affairs to address diversity issues have been criticized (Mueller, 1999; Grieger, 1996). Historically, the administrators on a college campus did not have the knowledge and/or the desire to assist the incoming minority students, adding to some of the unwelcoming college environments that many students have found (Mueller, 1999; Pope, 1992). Watson et al. (2002) discusses the role of the campus climate and how crucial it is to understand the campus climate in order to

better enhance diversity on a college campus. The study showed that a chilly campus climate reflects a lack of interest in diversity issues, a lack of support for minority student populations, and a lack of opportunities for minority students on the campuses.

### **Student Affairs Graduate Programs**

In order to train student affairs professionals for their work, those individuals typically attend a master's degree preparatory program in student affairs (McEwen & Talbot, 1998). The purpose of those programs is to prepare competently trained professionals to perform the wide spectrum of practice in student affairs on the college campus (McEwen & Talbot, 1998). According to McEwen and Talbot (1998), the curriculum for the Master's degree level for student affairs professionals in higher education should have two objectives: "(a) to provide thorough theoretical background and knowledge related to understanding students, higher education, and the practice of student affairs, and (b) to develop effective student affairs practitioners thorough guided and supervised experiences in student affairs" (p. 128).

The professional studies component of graduate programs is the core base of knowledge for student affairs professionals, which includes understanding and knowing students, student populations, and demographics of who attends college and how those students develop and learn in college (McEwen & Talbot, 1998). Appropriate student development theories include psychosocial development, identity development, and campus ecology theories as aspects of professional studies within student affairs graduate preparation (McEwen & Talbot, 1998). Further, DeWitt (1991) called for graduate programs to do more than provide a review of student affairs areas and counseling skills.

Instead, master's degree programs should provide hands-on experience and theoretical training on professional development and diversity, among other issues (DeWitt, 1991).

The most recent and universally accepted standards and guidelines for student affairs graduate programs are published by the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS), who have revised, developed, and approved a set of standards and guidelines in 1986, 1992, 1999, and 2002 (Council for the Advancement of Standards, 1999; Creamer & Winston, 2002; McEwen & Talbot, 1998). CAS is not an accrediting agency, but considers itself a consortium of representatives of professional associations in higher education (Creamer & Winston, 2002). Functional areas of service in higher education can voluntarily use the materials for program assessment and improvement (Creamer & Winston, 2002).

The most recent set of CAS Standards and Guidelines at the Masters-Level Graduate Program for Student Affairs Professionals requires knowledge of foundational studies, professional studies, and supervised practice (CAS, 2002; Creamer & Winston, 2002). In several ways, the CAS standards reiterate the need for the inclusion of diversity issues in the graduate training for student affairs (Flowers, 2003).

More specifically, the component of professional studies, as required by the CAS standards within the curriculum, must include "(a) student development theory, (b) student characteristics and the effects of college on students, (c) individual and group interventions, (d) organization and administration of student affairs, and (e) assessment, evaluation, and research" (CAS, 2002). Part 5b.1 of the CAS Standards (2002) requires studies of student development theories, including racial, cultural, ethnic, gender, and sexual identity, as well as the intersection of multiple identities. In addition, Part 5b.2

states that programs should include studies of student characteristics and how those characteristics impact the effects of college, satisfaction with the college experience, student involvement in college, and factors which correlate with student persistence and attrition (CAS, 2002). Those student characteristics should include, but are not limited to, age, gender, ethnicity, race, religion, sexual identity, academic ability and preparation, learning styles, socioeconomic status, national origin, immigrant status, disability, developmental status, cultural background and orientation, transfer status, and family situation (CAS, 2002).

Similarly, professional standards for teaching in the K-12 school system have reinforced the recent need for schools of education to demonstrate how they are including new knowledge about student diversity in their teacher preparation programs (Holm & Horn, 2003; Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium, 1992; National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education, 2002;; National Board for Professional Teaching Standards, 2003).

A survey conducted in 2000 by the Association of American Colleges and Universities which showed that 62% of 543 responding colleges, universities, and community colleges either have in place or are in the process of developing a cultural diversity requirement for graduation (Humphreys, 2000). By providing the curriculum to undergraduates, those institutions are working to help college students prepare to succeed in the workplace and to strengthen the growing diversity within communities (Humphreys, 2000). That study also found that there was a difference across regions of the United States in their diversity course requirements; the lowest two regions were in

the northwest (35%) and the southeast (36%) as compared to the national norm of 62% (Humphreys, 2000).

The American College Personnel Association publishes the Directory of Graduate Programs: Preparing Student Affairs Professionals (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000), a voluntary listing of student affairs graduate programs. In order to appear in this publication, student affairs graduate programs must apply and pay a \$50.00 fee (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Flowers, 2003). In addition, to support the quality enhancement efforts endorsed by ACPA and the student affairs profession, all programs wishing to be included in the Directory of Graduate Programs were also expected to use the CAS Standards for Master's Programs in Student Affairs to review their programs (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000). Programs were required to provide feedback on the usefulness of the CAS Standards for evaluating their programs, but did not have to apply the CAS standards to evaluate their own programs (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000).

Flowers' (2003) study was based on the research about undergraduate diversity courses conducted by the American Association of Colleges and Universities (Humphreys, 2000). Flowers' (2003) study of diversity course requirements within student affairs graduate programs consisted only of programs that met the ACPA Professional Preparation Commission minimum requirements. The ACPA commission works to improve and evaluate all aspects of student affairs graduate programs including the recruitment of potential graduate students, curriculum development for student affairs graduate programs, and professional development for practicing student affairs practitioners (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000; Flowers, 2003).

Minimum requirements for student affairs graduate programs include (a) a full-time faculty member to direct the program, (b) at least four courses about student services/affairs/development and the college student/environment, (c) a two year curriculum or its equivalent, and (d) at least one required and supervised practicum/field experience (Coomes & Gerda, 2003; Coomes & Talbot, 2000; Flowers, 2003).

McEwen and Roper (1994a) cite numerous benefits of multicultural knowledge and experiences for student affairs professionals. Those include a stronger ability to work effectively with a diverse student population, improving multicultural awareness and knowledge of graduate students and faculty in student affairs graduate programs, and the enhancement of multicultural skills (McEwen and Roper, 1994a). Other benefits include an increase of comfort with issues of race and ethnicity and a better ability to work effectively with a diversity of colleagues (McEwen & Roper, 1994a). McEwen and Roper (1994a) also state that “embracing multiculturalism represents honest scholarship, rather than scholarship void of consideration of multicultural issues” (p. 49), and that student affairs graduate programs can serve as an intensive learning environment and a forum for embracing multicultural awareness, knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Pope and Reynolds (1997) call for greater complexity in student affairs and higher education researchers in their understanding and exploration of multicultural affairs. McEwen and Talbot (1998) state that professional studies and supervised practice in student affairs will require the most changes over time with the current support to include student development theories which focus on special populations instead of the traditional theories which were generally created by studying white, middle to upper class, heterosexual men that were then generalized to all students in college. Those

special populations include women, ethnic minorities, international students, students with disabilities, non-traditional students, and students who are gay, lesbian, or bisexual (McEwen & Roper, 1994a ; McEwen & Talbot, 1998).

To create a multicultural perspective in student affairs curriculum, faculty must be educated about diverse student populations and environments, development and counseling theories for minority student populations, and the role of student affairs in serving multicultural students (Evans & Williams, 1998; McEwen & Roper, 1994a). Faculty should also include an assessment of the knowledge base of the students as well as the goals and mission of their own department to ensure the inclusion of such topics into the curriculum (Wilkinson & Rund, 2000).

Most student affairs graduate programs and their guiding standards are curriculum based, rather than competency based (Pope & Reynolds, 1997). While a curriculum based approach focuses on specific courses or content areas, a competency-based approach uses behavioral outcomes that result from exposure to particular content areas, courses, and experiential activities like practicum experiences (Pope & Reynolds, 1997). The use of a diversity course in the curriculum reinforces the model of student affairs graduate programs as curriculum-based. As such, this study assesses the competencies of new student affairs professionals obtained from master's degree programs about a specific topic: diversity.

Flowers (2003) cited the example of student affairs graduate programs appropriately including content of theories of racial identity and gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender identity development, but also content about many of the issues connected to Boyer's (1990) ideals of an open and just campus community such as the

importance of assessing the campus climate and how to appropriately measure discrimination on campus. Specifically, future student affairs professionals learn about the profession and higher education through graduate programs in student affairs, and those programs must include multicultural training (Flowers, 2003; Pope & Reynolds, 1997; Pope et al., 2004). Finally, Pope et al. (2004) state that “infusing multiculturalism into graduate student affairs preparation programs is especially powerful because of their role in shaping the values, knowledge and experiential base, and culture of new student affairs professionals” (p. 150).

### **General Skills and Competencies for Student Affairs Practice**

Smith (1990) called for research to not focus on the student, but to assess the institution itself and its ability to deal with a multicultural student body. That research would assess the ability of all members of the university community, including the staff, to function in a diverse environment (Smith, 1990).

Two researchers have recently assessed the general necessary skills and competencies for entry-level work in student affairs. Robertson (1999) evaluated whether the training of skills and knowledge in graduate preparatory programs in student affairs has been applied to actual job practice, and Waple (2000) identified skills and competencies attained through graduate preparatory programs and determined the degree to which those skills and competencies were necessary for entry-level practice in student affairs. However, they did not specifically address diversity issues.

The sources of frameworks for general skill development for outcomes of graduate programs in student affairs come from various fields outside of higher education in other research. In the assessment of skills and competencies for student affairs work,

Robertson (1999) used Kirkpatrick's model to evaluate the effectiveness of training programs, from the field of psychology. Her study focused on the third level set forth in that model, which focuses on whether the training skills and knowledge have been applied to the job (p. 23). Waple (2000) utilized six different sets of guidelines by various authors and the Council for the Advancement of Standards (CAS), and synthesized them down to categorical groupings of skills to develop the conceptual framework for his study. Very little research has been conducted directly using Boyer's (1990) principles of community, although his work is continually cited throughout higher education.

### **Multicultural Training for Student Affairs Practice**

In order to increase respect for and to encourage the value of cultural differences on a college campus, education and awareness training programs have been created to move student affairs practitioners toward a more multicultural setting (Manning & Coleman-Boatwright, 1991). Other benefits of multicultural competence might include an increase of comfort with issues of race and ethnicity and a better ability to work effectively with a diversity of colleagues (McEwen & Roper, 1994a).

McEwen and Roper (1994a) state that "embracing multiculturalism represents honest scholarship, rather than scholarship void of consideration of multicultural issues" (p. 49), and that student affairs graduate programs can serve as an intensive learning environment and a forum for embracing multicultural awareness, knowledge, skills, and attitudes. While student affairs practitioners have increased their focus on multicultural issues over the past few decades, several studies have shown that little or no training in multicultural issues have been given in student affairs graduate programs (Hoover, 1994; McEwen &

Roper, 1994a; Talbot, 1992, 1996a). At the same time, the composition of college administrators have continued to be predominately white, and students in those programs tend to be female (Mueller & Pope, 2001; Talbot, 1996a). The limited racial diversity adds to the growing complexity of multicultural dynamics on college campuses, as the composition of college administrators continues to be approximately 80% White, while the numbers of students of color increase (Mueller & Pope, 2001). Accordingly, White student affairs professionals are supporting students of color, and designing and implementing programs and policies aimed at multicultural issues and concerns on college campuses (Mueller & Pope, 2001).

McEwen and Roper (1994a) give three basic reasons to include multicultural content and experience in student affairs graduate programs: (a) an ethical obligation, (b) the research which shows a lack of knowledge and experience about multiculturalism, and (c) it is a collective responsibility of student affairs professionals to be able to work effectively with diverse student populations.

McEwen and Roper (1994a) state that it is an ethical and professional responsibility to educate and prepare graduate students in student affairs to work effectively with diverse student populations. They rely on the CAS standards as the source of that ethical obligation (McEwen & Roper, 1994a).

The research also indicates that there is need for inclusion of multiculturalism in graduate training for student affairs professionals (Hoover, 1994; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Talbot, 1992, 1996a). In the most direct study about assessing the training of student affairs professionals about diversity issues, Talbot found that students in graduate student affairs preparatory programs do not represent a diverse student population, and

those students has a limited exposure to diverse populations before entering those graduate programs (Talbot 1992, 1996a). Those students demonstrated a hierarchy of knowledge, skills, and comfort between various diverse student populations, with the highest levels involving issues about women and the lowest levels about gays, lesbians, and bisexuals (Talbot 1992, 1996a). Their comfort and knowledge about students of color was limited to African-American students, and other ethnic groups were not addressed in the graduate programs (Talbot 1992, 1996a).

Hoover (1994) examined the preparedness of student affairs practitioners for meeting the needs of diverse student populations and functioning effectively in multicultural environments, by assessing the comfort level, beliefs, knowledge, skills, behaviors, and experiences of those professionals regarding diverse groups. She used the framework from multicultural training and competencies from counseling: beliefs/attitudes, knowledge, and skills to demonstrate preparedness. Her study focused on individual differences of the student affairs professional as well as professional development opportunities but not necessarily the training obtained in the graduate program in student affairs (Hoover, 1994).

King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) utilized the first version of the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary (MCSA-P) Form to assess multicultural experiences and competency levels of graduate students in student affairs preparatory programs, student affairs staff serving as internship supervisors, and diversity educators (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). They found significant differences by group and race; diversity educators scored the highest levels of multicultural competence, and student affairs staff members scored significantly higher than graduate students. In

addition, students of color scored significantly higher than White students and the staff members (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

In the studies about general skills and competencies for student affairs practice conducted by both Robertson (1999) and Waple (2001), both researchers included items in their surveys related to the need for working with diverse populations, such as “apply developmental theory to practice,” “work effectively with a wide range of individuals,” (Robertson, p. 73) as well as “student demographics and characteristics,” “student development theory,” and “cultural foundations of higher education” (Waple, p. 98). However, these studies were more generally focused and merely included diversity issues with many other skills for student affairs practitioners.

Pope (1992) identified and examined the multiracial change efforts being utilized in the practice of student affairs, using the concept of multicultural organizational development and applying it to student affairs. Her research provided the framework to classify the range of activities on various campuses which are designed to address specific multicultural issues (Pope, 1992).

In the American College Personnel Association Strategic Initiative on Multiculturalism, Pope, Reynolds, and Cheatham (1997) stated that although the profession of student affairs has acknowledged the shift in demographics for college students, there are still significant gaps in knowledge and practice of addressing issues of multiculturalism. The report and proposal by ACPA defined multiculturalism very broadly, including race and ethnicity, gender, socioeconomic status, sexual or affectional orientation, and national origin (Pope et al., 1997). However, for the purpose of this study, the definition of multiculturalism will be limited to racial and ethnic minorities.

### **Diversity Course Requirements**

Student affairs graduate programs have made a strong effort to include cultural diversity in the curricula since the 1990's (Fried, 1998). A study conducted by Fried and Forrest (1992) showed that all of the responding graduate programs had changed the curriculum to include multiculturalism, and more than half stated that either one course or parts of several courses were dedicated to diversity (Fried, 1998). Counseling psychology graduate programs that are considered most effective in training multiculturally competent practitioners include at least one required course in diversity issues, with the goal of helping the students understand basic beliefs and practices of the cultures with which they come in contact (Fried, 1998).

Since then, Flowers (2003) conducted a study that assessed the extent to which diversity courses were part of the required curriculum in student affairs graduate programs. He defined a diversity course as one which was "developed and taught with the express intent of promoting the development of culturally proficient student affairs professionals who were knowledgeable and sensitive to the histories, circumstances, and needs of culturally and racially diverse individuals" (Flowers, 2003, p. 5). He adapted his research design from the National Survey of Diversity in the Undergraduate Curriculum conducted by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (Flowers, 2003).

Flowers (2003) surveyed the program directors that coordinate student affairs graduate programs that met the requirements of the Professional Preparation Commission of the American College Personnel Association (ACPA), consisting of 78 programs that met those requirements. Fifty-three institutions responded to the survey, and contained a diverse sample of institutional sizes, controls, and selectivity (Flowers, 2003).

Flowers (2003) found that many graduate programs require diversity courses, and that multiple strategies exist to ensure that graduate students obtain information to give them appropriate knowledge, skills, and awareness of diverse student populations. However, he reports that only 25% of the programs have had a diversity course requirement in place for 10 years or more (Flowers, 2003).

Seventy-four percent of those who responded to the survey indicated that they had a diversity course requirement in their curriculum of core courses at the Master's degree level. Of those respondents, all of them had at least one required course that addressed diversity within the United States (Flowers, 2003). Seventy-five percent of those student affairs graduate programs with a diversity course requirement reported that those courses had been in place for five years or more (Flowers, 2003).

All programs requiring a diversity course reported that one course was all that was required for a Master's student to fulfill the diversity course requirement (Flowers, 2003). Fifty-nine percent or 23 student affairs programs offered at least one single course, 21% or eight student affairs programs offered at least one single course with a common syllabus and at least some commonly shared reading across all sections, 10% or four student affairs programs offered at least one required course selected by students among a list of courses from various disciplines, and 10% or four student affairs programs offered at least several required courses with significant diversity content (Flowers, 2003). None of the student affairs programs reported that they had several required courses with significant diversity content as part of a curriculum (Flowers, 2003). However, five of those programs requiring a diversity course did indicate that they were in the process of revising their diversity course content (Flowers, 2003).

The 26% of student affairs programs which reported that they did not have a diversity course requirement consisted of 10 programs which reported that they were not in the process of instituting a diversity course requirement, but four programs were in that process (Flowers, 2003).

Flowers (2003) concluded that “student affairs graduate programs are making substantial curricular changes that have the potential to enhance student affairs graduate students’ multicultural knowledge and skills” (pp. 8-9). He suggests that the greatest opportunity for graduate students to learn such material would be to have a diversity course requirement along with a diversity integration plan within those graduate programs (Flowers, 2003). However, he cautioned that the approach of some of the programs which do not have a diversity course requirement could be helpful for students to gain multicultural knowledge and skills, but that there were several possibilities of negative unintended consequences if the diversity content was scattered throughout a graduate program without proper articulation between courses (Flowers, 2003).

Flowers (2003) recommended several strategies for ensuring that diversity content would be appropriately conveyed to the students in such an “integration approach” (p. 9) of interconnected diversity content throughout the student affairs graduate program. He called for faculty to formalize that “diversity integration plan” to organize a strategy to decide which specific aspect of diversity knowledge would be appropriate for a particular course (Flowers, 2003). He also recommended that a data collection system be implemented to ensure that students are prepared to work with diverse students upon graduation, including possibilities of an exit interview or capstone experience which measures the overall effectiveness of that diversity training (Flowers, 2003). Such

assessment could also provide longitudinal data to the student affairs graduate programs in order to evaluate the impact of courses and related curricular experiences (Flowers, 2003).

Ultimately, Flowers (2003) recommends that the best method for student affairs graduate programs to train future student affairs leaders to face the challenges and opportunities created by a diverse student body and to reflect on the information they learned throughout their student affairs graduate program.

### **Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs**

Although student affairs professionals want to address issues related to diversity on campus (Brown, 1998), they would need to have the necessary awareness, knowledge, and skills to enhance development of college students and improve the campus community (Brown, 1998; McEwen & Roper, 1994a; Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). The three components of multicultural competence as considered within the counseling literature as well as in student affairs are awareness, knowledge, and skills (Mueller, 1999; Mueller & Pope, 2003; Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997).

Ebbers and Henry (1990) first called for cultural competence for student affairs professionals, utilizing the concept of the “effectiveness of a helper’s work with someone of a different ethnicity, culture, or race” (p. 319) taken from the field of social work and as defined by Cross, Friesen, Mason, and Rider (1998). Ebbers and Henry (1990) suggested that student affairs staff should participate in training on acceptance and awareness, possibly moving from campus training initiatives to a national network of student affairs professionals.

Talbot (1996b) cites multiculturalism as a necessary component of being a student affairs professional, and suggests that awareness of others and self is the initial focus, with movement toward experiencing differences to complete the journey toward being someone who adapts to a variety of cultures and settings. Further, Dixon (2001) states that multiculturally competent student affairs administrators are “more likely to engage in active promotion and support of a diversity initiative...and are more likely to seek strong, collaborative relationships with other institutional units, particularly in academic affairs” (p. 76). According to Banning et al. (2000), the concept of cultural competence in student affairs began to appear in later literature within the *NASPA Journal*, calling for student affairs professionals “to be more diverse and more culturally competent in order to foster a more inclusive and diverse campus environment” (pp. 67-68).

King (2002) suggests that in order for student affairs professionals respond to issues of diversity in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, they should do a number of items to prepare. However, first on her list is

student affairs professionals need to become more culturally competent, to have the knowledge, skills, and attitudes to understand and work effectively with diverse groups of students. Applying these skills in many campus contexts and with many members of the campus community (not just with underrepresented or marginalized students) would contribute to a broader campus awareness of the importance of multicultural competencies in our diverse society. (King, 2002, p. 7)

Based on the work of Barr & Desler (2000), Creamer et al. (1992), and Delworth and Hanson (1989), Pope and Reynolds (1997) describe a concept of multicultural competence for effective student affairs practice based on similar concepts from multicultural counseling psychology (Mueller & Pope, 2003, 2001; Pope et al., 2004). The concept of multicultural competence is drawn from the field of counseling

psychology, where many models of cross-cultural skills are being applied to therapists who work with clients from different cultures (Mueller, 1999; Mueller & Pope, 2003; Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). Mueller (1999), Mueller and Pope (2003), Pope et al. (2004), and Pope and Reynolds (1997) draw similarities between student affairs and counseling psychology based on similar histories, goals, and values of the professions to make the assumption that the existing literature on multicultural counseling competence should influence student affairs research and practice. Even within the field of counseling psychology, there has been little attention about the evaluation of training for multicultural counseling training until the last 10 years (Ponterotto, Rieger, Barrett, & Sparks, 1994).

Because of the lack of effort on behalf of student affairs as a profession to address multicultural efforts on their campuses, Pope and Reynolds (1997) have developed their own model of multicultural competence to assess whether student affairs practitioners have developed the necessary knowledge, awareness, and skills to work effectively with students from diverse populations. They state that “multicultural competence has become a requisite core competency area for ethical and efficacious practice” (p. 275) as the demographics of college campuses become more diverse (Pope & Reynolds, 1997).

In their model of multicultural competence for student affairs, Pope and Reynolds (1997) expanded the competency areas to seven major groups of skills for student affairs professionals, which include: (a) administrative, management, and leadership skills; (b) theory and translation skills; (c) interpersonal and helping skills; (d) ethical and legal knowledge and decision-making skills; (e) training and teaching skills; (f) assessment and evaluation skills; and (g) multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills (p. 268).

In the creation of this model, Pope and Reynolds (1997) extended multicultural competence to student affairs by asserting that multicultural knowledge, skills, and awareness must be integrated into the work of student affairs despite the change of context from counseling. The basic concepts of multicultural skills, knowledge, and awareness remain the same in both settings, but Pope and Reynolds (1997) have put forth a set of characteristics for each of the components of multicultural competence related to the practice of student affairs (p. 269) (Pope et al., 2004).

Multicultural awareness includes the understanding of one's values, beliefs, attitudes, and assumptions and the influences it has on one's work with students who are culturally different (Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). Some of the characteristics of multicultural awareness include "an openness to change and belief that change is necessary and positive," "a personal commitment to justice, social change, and combating depression," and "an acceptance of other world views and perspectives and a willingness to acknowledge that they, as individuals, do not have all the answers. (Pope & Reynolds, 1997, p. 271).

Multicultural knowledge includes knowledge about oppression issues in higher education information about various cultures of students on campus (Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). An understanding of theories related to identity development and student development theories about students of color, and a thorough grasp of the historical background of higher education, add to a student affairs practitioner's demonstration of multicultural knowledge. By understanding the barriers for students from diverse backgrounds, student affairs professionals are able to implement change and the creation of a campus community (Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). For

their model of multicultural competence as described in the current literature, the definition of multicultural is limited to racial and ethnic minorities, and does not include sexual orientation minorities such as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or transgender students (J. A. Mueller, personal communication, January 8, 2003).

Multicultural skills focus on student affairs professionals' actual abilities to create and maintain multicultural campus environments (Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997). The ability to openly discuss cultural differences and issues, to make individual, group, and institutional interventions, and the ability to gain trust and respect from those who are culturally different from themselves are all skills that a multiculturally competent student affairs practitioner possess (Pope et al., 2004; Pope & Reynolds, 1997).

Mueller (1999) described three key features in the model proposed by Pope and Reynolds (1997). First, the model assumes that basic competencies in each of the seven areas should be held by all student affairs professionals (Mueller, 1999). However, they conceded that while all student affairs professionals need basic awareness, skills, and knowledge in each of these areas, some will develop more expertise in some of those areas (Mueller, 1999). Second, this model requires that all student affairs professionals should have some fundamental knowledge, awareness, and skills about issues of diversity, not allowing a small margin of those who have developed such expertise to manage and serve as a consultant for other practitioners (Mueller, 1999). This inflates the purpose of multicultural competency, making it a core competency and not just an area of expertise (Mueller, 1999). Third, this model relays an integrative and dynamic relationship among the seven competencies (Mueller, 1999). By being able to put a

theory into practice, a student affairs professional can utilize the various components of the model to make change (Mueller, 1999).

Pope and Reynolds (1997) stated that until more research about the multicultural competence and training of student affairs professionals is conducted, preparation program faculty and student affairs supervisors will not be able to assess whether their training and education efforts on multiculturalism have been successful. Specifically, research should define and measure the constructs in concrete, behavior-oriented terms, and multiple research methods will provide a better understanding of multicultural education and training efforts, as well as help define the construct of multicultural competence (Pope & Reynolds, 1997). McEwen & Roper (1994a) pointed to Talbot's 1992 multimethod study which evaluated faculty, students, and specific courses in student affairs graduate programs as "an excellent model" (p. 50) for such assessment.

### **Measuring Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs**

Because of the growth of attention to diversity issues in counseling training programs and in the counseling literature, it was not until the 1990's that instruments were designed to measure the multicultural competence of counselors (Ponterotto et al., 1994). In 1994, Ponterotto et al. described the empirical validation of multicultural instrumentation for counseling to be in a stage of infancy. Since the early 1990's, several multicultural competency surveys were developed to measure competency through various subscales including multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills (Kocarek, Talbot, Batka, & Anderson, 2001).

It was not until 1997 that Pope and Reynolds applied the concept of multicultural competence from counseling psychology to the field of student affairs. Their work

prepared the only theoretically-based instrument which measures multicultural competence for student affairs: The Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary Scale (MCSA-P2), which is a revised version of the same instrument created by Pope and Mueller (1999). Mueller (1999) specifically states that this instrument, or later versions of it, will help student affairs professionals in examining the effectiveness of student affairs graduate programs, which should improve those multicultural awareness, knowledge and skills. The instrument is designed to quantify the tripartite set of skills needed to create multiculturally sensitive and affirming campuses (Mueller, 1999; Pope et al., 2004; Pope and Reynolds, 1997).

The MCSA-P2 is a 34-item instrument designed to measure multicultural competence in student affairs practice, based on Pope and Reynolds' (1997) characteristics (Mueller, 1999; Pope et al., 2004). The items for the instrument were written to reflect the knowledge, skills, and awareness issues (Mueller, 1999; Pope et al., 2004), and Mueller (1999) states that such instruments will play a crucial role in designing more effective student affairs graduate programs, as well as increasing our understanding of multicultural competence through research.

Based on the three components of multicultural competence, knowledge, awareness, and skills, Mueller (1999) states that the MCSA-P2 is best utilized as a unidimensional assessment yielding a single score. A higher score indicates a higher level of multicultural competence; the instrument takes approximately fifteen to twenty minutes to complete (Mueller, 1999).

An initial validation and content validity analysis were conducted on the first version of the instrument, the MSCA-P, to finalize the items. The revised version of the

MCSA-P had 32 items and utilized a 7-point Likert scale. The first study using the MCSA-P found a coefficient alpha of 0.92 for internal consistency. A factor analysis indicated that a one-factor solution best represented the data, likely due to the complexity of the construct of multicultural competence (Mueller, 1999).

In a second study to assess the reliability, convergent reliability and problems from social desirability on the MCSA-P, the internal consistency resulted in an alpha coefficient of 0.91. This version had 32 items on it, and Pope and Mueller (1999) found significant correlations with the total and three subscales of the Quick Discrimination Index to provide support for the convergent validity of the MCSA-P. Social desirability also was not a problem, because there was non-significant correlation with the Social Desirability Scale (Mueller, 1999). Mueller (1999) resulted in a 0.93 coefficient alpha in his own dissertation using the same instrument.

The revised form of the instrument, the MCSA-P2, still uses a 7-point Likert Scale and has shown a satisfactory level of internal consistency with a 0.91 alpha coefficient in the initial validation (Pope & Mueller, 2000). In a later study, Mueller and Pope found that the MCSA-P2 demonstrated a level of 0.93 coefficient alpha for internal consistency using their sample.

### **Research Using the MCSA-P2**

Mueller and Pope (2001) examined the relationship between multicultural competence and racial consciousness of white student affairs practitioners, using the MCSA-P2 and the Oklahoma Racial Attitudes Scale-Preliminary Form. Members of the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) were selected as site coordinators, being the primary link between the researchers and participants on various campuses.

Participants were told that the purpose of the study was to examine background, experiences, and perspectives on multiculturalism within the practice of student affairs (Mueller & Pope, 2001).

The results of this study showed that there is a strong relationship between White racial consciousness and multicultural competence (Mueller & Pope, 2001). The researchers offer the criticism that training on multiculturalism issues often focus on knowledge about other racial groups or about concepts like oppression, without encouraging self-awareness. Accordingly, the researchers suggest that student affairs graduate programs and other professional development opportunities may benefit from including opportunities for White students and practitioners to explore their racial attitudes (Mueller & Pope, 2001).

Mueller and Pope (2001) reiterate that the findings from this study “lay an important foundation for further research on the fairly new concept of multicultural competence in student affairs practice” (p. 142). Their work using the MCSA-P2 provides a solid basis for utilizing the instrument as well as the concepts of multicultural competence in student affairs (Pope et al., 2004), and this study would extend their research and provide student affairs graduate programs some insight into their training levels about diversity concepts.

A recent study utilized the first version of the Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary (MCSA-P) Form to assess multicultural experiences and competency levels of graduate students in student affairs preparatory programs, student affairs staff serving as internship supervisors, and diversity educators (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). They found that diversity educators scored the highest levels

of multicultural competence; student affairs staff members behind them, but scoring significantly higher than graduate students. In addition, there were significant differences by group and race, with students of color scoring significantly higher than White students and the staff members (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

In that study, King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) used a questionnaire that they designed which gathered background information about the participants, including individual demographic information as well as a series of Likert scale and open-ended questions about their educational and personal experienced that they believed had affected their multicultural competence, as well as a self-assessment of competence (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). They also administered the MCSA-P Form which consisted of 48 items using a 7-point Likert scale (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

The authors stated that this study was designed to begin to address questions about extensive testing of the instrument, developing norms, and defining multicultural competence to articulate the steps that lead to the development of this competence (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) reported high internal consistency with an alpha of 0.93.

#### **Call for Further Research Using the MCSA-P2**

Pope and Mueller (2000) made specific suggestions about the future direction of research involving the MCSA-P2, much of which would continue to examine the reliability and validity of the instrument. Pope and Mueller (2000) encourage future researchers to examine the relationship of demographic and educational variables on multicultural competence to determine the specific characteristics and experiences that may account for differing levels of multicultural competence. This exploration could include investigations of factors such as age, gender, racial identity or racial consciousness, academic degree level, and amount of multicultural training (p. 606).

This study would serve to fulfill the specific direction of the designers of the instrument that measures multicultural competence in student affairs.

## CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program by examining the level of multicultural competence within a selected sample of student affairs professionals in the United States. This chapter will address the following primary aspects of the methodology: 1) the sample, 2) the instrumentation; 3) the research design; 4) procedures; and 5) data analysis.

The research questions for this study were derived from the problem identified in Chapter 1. The growing diversity of college students requires that student affairs professionals be able to work effectively with diverse students and with issues of diversity and with the goal of creating a campus community as described by Boyer (1990). In order to prepare those professionals to work with diverse student populations, a diversity course is one method used within student affairs graduate programs (Flowers, 2003). Flowers (2003) found that 74% of responding student affairs graduate programs had a diversity course requirement, and an additional 8% of programs were in the process of implementing such a requirement. Beyond Flowers' (2003) study, there is currently little information about the impact of a diversity course requirement in graduate programs in student affairs.

The race or years of experience of the individual has been shown to affect the multicultural competence within counseling psychology (King & Howard-Hamilton,

2003; Ottavi, 1996). Similarly, there is little research about the multicultural competence of student affairs and its relationship with the race or years of experience of student affairs professionals, beyond the initial studies using the Multicultural Competence MCSA-P2.

Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference between multicultural competence of student affairs professionals who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program, and those who did not?
2. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the race of student affairs professionals?
3. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the years of experience of student affairs professionals?

### **Sample**

The population will be the membership of NASPA, which is one of the two major professional associations for student affairs professionals. NASPA calls itself “the leading voice for student affairs administration, policy, and practice” and lists as one of its goals “to promote...diversity” in NASPA and the profession of student affairs (NASPA, 2003). NASPA consists of seven geographical regions within the United States plus an international region (NASPA, 2003). The largest regions within NASPA are Region III (the southeastern United States), Region IV-E (states from the Midwest), and Region II (mid-Atlantic States) (NASPA, 2004a, 2004b).

There were recent discussions about a potential merger NASPA and the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) because of a significant overlap in mission and members, but the groups decided to remain separate at this time (ACPA Executive Council and the NASPA Board of Directors, 2003).

As a major professional association for student affairs administrators, NASPA's Standards of Professional Practice (1990) state that NASPA

seeks to promote student personnel work as a profession which requires personal integrity, belief in the dignity and worth of individuals, respect for individual differences and diversity, a commitment to service, and a dedication to the development of individuals and the college community through education.

Several initiatives for members of NASPA focus on the changing nature of today's college students, and the promotion of diversity issues within student affairs (Barr & Desler, 2000).

In 1996, senior student affairs officers who were voting members of NASPA had previously been solicited for an assessment of multicultural competence in the initial validation of the MCSA-P, which is the original version of the instrument to be used in this study, the MCSA-P2 (Pope & Mueller, 2000). However, more recent research using this instrument to determine multicultural competence in student affairs has drawn from members of ACPA, not NASPA (Mueller, 1999). Therefore, the membership of NASPA provides a relatively untested and appropriate population for assessment of multicultural competence within student affairs.

This sample of using NASPA members will differ from other research using the same instrumentation of the MCSA-P2. Mueller's (1999) study utilized 60 campus liaisons to serve as "Site Coordinators" to distribute the instruments to the randomly selected participants on their own campuses. His study examined a sample of 534 usable instruments, with a 74% overall return rate (Mueller, 1999). This study will also differ from King and Howard-Hamilton (2003)'s sample, which assessed 131 students, student affairs staff, and diversity educators from four campuses in two geographic regions in the U.S.

For this study, a random sample was selected from the population of the entire membership of NASPA. Alreck and Settle (1995) state that the maximum practical sample size is about 1000 respondents, and that it is typically unnecessary to sample more than 10% of the population for an adequate confidence level. Systematic sampling provides an even spread across a population with relative ease of performance (Alreck & Settle, 1995).

The membership of NASPA is approximately 8,725 individuals (NASPA, 2004a). For this study, a random sample of 500 NASPA members was obtained from the NASPA Center for Research. Participants were asked if they had earned a Master's degree in student affairs. Respondents were categorized into whether they had earned that graduate degree or not.

### **Instrumentation**

The data for this study were collected using three self-report measures: The Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2) (Pope & Mueller, 2000); the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability-Short Form C (MC-SDS) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, Reynolds, 1982), and a descriptive questionnaire adapted from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) (Flowers, 2003).

#### **Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale**

The MCSA-P2 (Pope & Mueller, 2000) is a 34-item instrument designed to measure multicultural competence in student affairs practice. It is designed to reflect the three dimensions of multicultural competence derived from counseling: knowledge, awareness, and skills and is based on the characteristics of a multiculturally competent

student affairs practitioner as conceived by Pope and Reynolds (1997) (Pope & Mueller, 2000; Mueller, 1999).

The instrument was developed to assess the necessary competencies for effective and multiculturally sensitive work in student affairs, and the authors used a heterogeneous group of student affairs graduate students, practitioners, and preparation program faculty to create that instrument (Pope & Mueller, 2000). The original version of the instrument, the MCSA-P1, based its research design on multicultural counseling competence research, using a rational-empirical approach which includes initial item development and selection, a card sort procedure, a content and face validity check, a focus group, and item analysis and sequenced factor analytic procedures to assess the psychometric properties of the instrument (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

Items were written to reflect the tripartite theory of multicultural competence found in the counseling literature: knowledge, awareness, and skills, but were modified to the field of student affairs (Pope & Mueller, 2000). The original set of items were clarified to consist of a revised list of 50 items, and then the research team used independent card sortings to divide each item into one of the three categories to determine if they would independently place each of the 50 items into the same category of knowledge, awareness, or skills (Pope & Mueller, 2000). Based on their feedback about clarity and domain appropriateness, two items were removed and six were rewritten to enhance clarity (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

The next version of the instrument contained 48 items used a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*not at all accurate*) to 7 (*very accurate*). An additional content validity check of experts who had not previously participated in the project rated each item on

clarity and domain appropriateness using additional scales, with 1 (*ambiguous or unclear*) to 5 (*clear and concise*) for clarity, and from 1 (*not relevant to multicultural awareness, knowledge, or skills*) to 5 (*most relevant to multicultural awareness, knowledge, or skills*) for domain appropriateness (Pope & Mueller, 2000). Generally, the results showed at least a mean score of 4.0 on both areas, and specific suggestions made by those experts to improve clarity by rewording items were incorporated (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

An initial study by Pope and Mueller (2000) found that the MCSA-P had very high internal consistency of 0.92, and it also showed preliminary evidence of criterion-related validity when they compared initial results of an expert group to a graduate student group (Pope & Mueller, 2000). In addition, the factor analysis showed that a one-factor model was the best to use for the instrument. Despite an attempt to assess the three subcomponents of multicultural competence of knowledge, skills, and awareness, the analysis showed that the instrument better assessed the broader construct of general multicultural competence (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

Accordingly, the initial reliability and validity scores of the MCSA-P1 were adequate enough for further research, and 14 items were eliminated from this version to produce a 34-item version of the MCSA-P2 (Pope & Mueller, 2000). Those items were removed to make the instrument more efficient, based on an analysis of each item which included examining item-total correlations, means and standard deviations, and factor loadings (Mueller, 1999). This study used the second version of the instrument, the MCSA-P2.

The MCSA-P2 uses a 7-point Likert-type scale for the participants to describe themselves, ranging from 1 (*not at all accurate*) to 7 (*very accurate*). Sample items include "I can discuss at length current issues facing students of color in higher education" and "racism continues to operate on an institutional level within higher education" (MCSA-P2). Mueller (1999) stated that the MCSA-P2 is best utilized as a unidimensional assessment yielding a single score. Scores are computed by summing the responses from all the items on the survey (J. A. Mueller, personal communication, August 7, 2003). A higher score indicates a higher level of multicultural competence; the instrument takes approximately fifteen to twenty minutes to complete (Mueller, 1999).

The second study conducted by Pope and Mueller (2000) consisted of 190 participants, who were recruited through site coordinators on various college campuses and volunteer requests at ACPA convention program sessions and meetings related to diversity issues. Similar to the study concerning the MCSA-P1, the participants represented various levels and years of experience, education, and functional areas within student affairs (Pope & Mueller, 2000). Participants were given the MCSA-P2, the Crowne and Marlowe (1960) Social Desirability Scale (SDS), and the Quick Discrimination Index (QDI) (Ponterotto et al., 1994; Pope & Mueller, 2000).

In Pope and Mueller (2000)'s study, the MCSA-P2 scores exhibited a high level of internal consistency with a coefficient alpha of 0.91, and significant positive correlations between the MCSA-P2 and the QDI provided support for the convergent validity of the MCSA-P2 by reinforcing the idea that those who are sensitive and aware of race and gender issues are also more multiculturally competent. In addition, a Pearson product-moment correlation analysis conducted between the MCSA P2-and the SDS

found a minimal and nonsignificant correlation which showed that social desirability contamination was not a problem for this study (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

### **Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale**

A second instrument will assess the influence of social desirability, as self-reports tend to be biased (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960). This is especially true with sensitive topics like racial identity and competence, including multicultural competence (Mueller, 1999). The primary measure of social desirability is the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, and reliable short versions of that scale have been developed and utilized as an acceptable substitute for the regular 33-item Marlowe-Crowne Scale (Reynolds, 1982; Zook & Sipps, 1985). The Marlowe-Crowne is used by most researchers as a separate measure to analyze the response set of subjects who are completing an additional self-report measure (Zook & Sipps, 1985).

Because issues such as racial sensitivity make such bias particularly likely, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale-Short Form C (MC-SDS) was administered to the participants (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Reynolds, 1982). Reynolds (1982) suggests using Short Form C when measuring social desirability response tendencies (Mueller, 1999). The short version Form C consists of 13 items, and asks items such as “I sometimes feel resentful when I don’t get my way” and “On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability” (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Reynolds, 1982). Acceptance of a socially desirable item scores 1, with higher scores indicating a higher degree of social desirability Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Reynolds, 1982).

The original MC-SDS consists of 33 true-false items and has an internal consistency of .88 and a test-retest stability of 0.89 (Mueller, 1999; Reynolds, 1982; Zook & Sipps, 1985). The short version Form C as redesigned by Reynolds (1982) has 13 of the original 33 items and has a correlation of 0.93 with the standard form (Mueller, 1999; Zook & Sipps, 1985).

Zook and Sipps (1985) administered the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale Short Form C as a separate entity in order to cross-validate and extend the evaluation of Reynolds' (1982) and Crowne and Marlowe's (1960) assessment of the instrument. Zook and Sipps (1985) compared responses by gender and assessed the reliability of those answers on the Short Form C by calculating Chronbach's Alpha for each gender and calculated a test-retest correlation. They found that the short form of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale can be used instead of the regular 33-item instrument without significant loss of reliability (Zook and Sipps, 1985). Zook and Sipps (1985) specifically recommended the use of the Reynolds' (1982) short form as superior to other versions of the instrument.

In Mueller's (1999) examination of the relationship between white racial consciousness and multicultural competence among white student affairs practitioners, the coefficient alpha was a 0.75 using the short version Form C. This study used the Marlowe-Crowne SDS Short Form C to reduce bias. The coefficient alpha for the current sample was 0.75.

#### **Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements**

In addition, a descriptive questionnaire derived from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs –Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) was sent to the participants

(Flowers, 2003). The SSAMP-DR was developed and utilized to obtain descriptive information regarding the existence of a required diversity course in the core curriculum of student affairs graduate programs or the intention to develop that requirement (Flowers, 2003). The SSAMP-DR was adapted from the National Survey of Diversity in the Undergraduate Curriculum and was developed by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) (AACU, 2000; Flowers, 2003; Humphreys, 2000).

Research in counseling psychology has demonstrated that certain variables can affect the multicultural competence, and those items are assessed by the SSAMP-DR and the MC-SDS. Those variables include gender, age, identification with a sexual minority, training and experience with multicultural issues, and social desirability (Mueller, 1999; Ottavi, 1996). Accordingly, many of those variables were included in the instruments in examining the relationship between the existence of a diversity requirement in graduate programs in student affairs and their level of multicultural competence.

The questionnaire included items about the participants' personal demographic information, such as age, gender, race, and identification with any other socially marginalized groups such as gay, lesbian, bisexual, or transgender, as well as the number of years of experience as a full-time student affairs professional. In addition, items about participants' graduate program for student affairs including the year of graduation, the type of program, and the location of the program will also be included in the questionnaire.

### **Research Design**

This study utilized an exploratory research design, which provides a basis for inferring the causal influence of one or more variables on others (Creswell, 1994).

Several variables will be considered in this design: the independent variables (diversity course, race, years of experience) and the dependent variable (multicultural competence). This study examined the difference in multicultural competence between those student affairs professionals who had a diversity course requirement and those who did not, as well as examining the relationship between multicultural competence and selected demographic variables of race and years of experience. Those potential covariates, as assessed by the SSAMP-DR and the MC-SDS, were included because research has shown that these variables can be related to multicultural competence in counseling psychology or student affairs: race (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003), and training and experience with multicultural issues (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003, Ottavi, 1996).

With the use of survey design, one will find a quantitative or numeric description of the sample through the data collection process (Creswell, 1994). The MCSA-P2 score provides a numerical value which indicates the level of multicultural competence (Mueller, 1999). In addition, the other variables were coded into a numeric value for comparison by category.

#### **Data Collection Procedures**

The survey packet was mailed to the selected participants in January 2004. Because mailed surveys typically get a low response rate, an inducement was included in the mailing to increase the response rate (Alreck & Settle, 1995). The survey packet included multiple components, and was assembled as an integrated package, with components that are consistent and compatible with one another (Alreck & Settle, 1995). For this study, each participant was mailed a cover letter explaining the project, an informed consent form, and a copy of the integrated survey made up of the Multicultural

Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, and the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs –Diversity Requirements, along with a return self-addressed envelope, as part of the integrated survey packet. Mueller recommended not titling the instruments accurately, and suggested calling the MCSA-P2 the Student Affairs Social Attitudes Scale if one needed a title (J. A. Mueller, personal communication, August 7, 2003). None of the instruments were labeled with their title to prevent a response bias in the instruments, but were simply labeled Part A, B, and C similar to the process rationale utilized by Mueller (1999) and was titled "Student Affairs Social Attitudes Scale."

Dillman (2000) suggested numerous techniques to achieve a high response rate in a mail survey. Multiple contacts will be utilized to increase the response to the survey by mail (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Dillman, 2000). Those multiple contacts included the original survey packet and a reminder to those who don't respond to the survey three weeks later.

The survey packet included a detailed cover letter explaining why a response is important, and a return envelope with a first-class stamp (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Dillman, 2000). In addition, the mailer included a token incentive of a pencil that reads "I helped Jeanna Mastrodicasa earn her Ph.D," modeled after the token incentive of Talbot (1992) who utilized a similar incentive (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Dillman, 2000). The surveys were coded so that the names and addresses of the non-respondents will be available solely for the purpose of sending a follow-up postcard reminder to those who did not respond with an offer for a replacement questionnaire (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Dillman, 2000).

In order to attempt to increase the total response rate, participants were given the opportunity to obtain results of the survey and will be assured full confidentiality (Dillman, 2000). Second mailings were sent to those who do not return the survey; a postcard reminder was mailed for the second mailing with a reminder to participate (Alreck & Settle, 1995; Dillman, 2000).

### **Pilot Study**

Pilot surveys provide a simple, quick, and economical way to provide useful information about the survey process, and do not require a large number of respondents (Alreck & Settle, 1995). Before the data collection process began in this study, a pilot study was conducted in Fall 2003 with a small sample of convenience of student affairs professionals personally known to the researcher. This pilot study reviewed the administrative procedures of this study, such as the length of time to respond to the survey. In addition, it identified and corrected any problems in the proposed data collection process or the SSAMP-DR. Because there is existing information about the reliability and validity of the MCSA-P2 and the SDS Short Form C, the pilot study will focus on problems with the new instrument, the SSAMP-DR, for any modifications. The pilot study showed a repetition of category for current student affairs function, and also created a better way to categorize the home state of the respondents' graduate work. Modifications were made to the SSAMP-DR and to the instructions given by the researcher as suggested from the pilot study.

### **Data Analysis**

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for all statistical analysis in this study. Because the psychometric properties of the MCSA-P2 have only

been examined in a few studies, this study conducted an analysis of the means, standard deviations, and internal consistency to give the authors of the MCSA-P2 more information about their instrument. In addition, descriptive items such as specific field within student affairs and gender about the respondents were presented.

To explore the question of whether there is a difference in multicultural competence between those who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program and those who did not, an independent samples t-test compared the mean scores of the MCSA-P2 to see if the groups are significantly different in terms of the independent variables (Alreck & Settle, 1995).

To examine the question about the relationship between multicultural competence and race, this study used analysis of variance (ANOVA) to learn if there are significantly different values for the dependent variable (multicultural competence). An ANOVA measures the statistical significance of the differences between two or more means (Alreck & Settle, 1995). To use the analysis of variance, the dependent variable must be from interval or ratio scale, and each value of the dependent variable must be from a different respondent (Alreck & Settle, 1995). In this case, the scores of the MCSA-P2 are considered to be interval, as the instrument yields a single score, and a higher score means a higher level of multicultural competence (Mueller, 1999). The responses are from individual respondents. A planned follow up procedure was the Bonferroni adjustment, and the Tukey will be a post hoc procedure if the data warrant it.

To examine the question about the relationship between multicultural competence and years of experience, this study used a correlation analysis to test the degree and significance of the relationship between those two variables. Correlation analysis

measures the degree to which those variables are related, but does not assume that one is causing or affecting the other (Alreck & Settle, 1995). Correlation analysis provides a coefficient of  $r$  which ranges from a value of zero, which indicates no relationship between the variables, to a plus or minus one, indicating a perfect linear relationship (Alreck and Settle, 1995). That coefficient of  $r$  is squared to provide the proportion of a perfect relationship between the two variables, providing the coefficient of determination RSQ (Alreck & Settle, 1995). RSQ will also provide an indication of a statistically significant relationship between the variables, showing the probability that such a relationship would occur solely by chance from sampling error if the two items were uncorrelated in the population (Alreck & Settle, 1995). A correlation matrix and a Pearson product moment correlation will be provided on the scores, which are interval (Alreck & Settle, 1995). The same analysis would be run for the years of experience variable compared to multicultural competence. In this case, the scores of the MCSA-P2 are considered to be interval, as the instrument yields a single score, and a higher score means a higher level of multicultural competence (Mueller, 1999).

In the next chapter, the statistical findings based on the analysis described in this chapter will be reported.

## CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to assess the impact of a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program by examining the level of multicultural competence within a selected sample of student affairs professionals in the United States. The study investigated the difference in responses on the Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2) (Pope & Mueller, 2001) between those who had taken a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program and those who had not. In addition, the study examined the relationship between race of the individual and years of experience as compared to their score of multicultural competence.

Specifically, this study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there a difference between multicultural competence of student affairs professionals who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program, and those who did not?
2. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the race of student affairs professionals?
3. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the years of experience of student affairs professionals?

This chapter presents a description of how the data were collected and the results of the various statistical analyses described in Chapter 3. This study compiled one instrument, the Student Affairs Social Attitudes Scale, from three previously utilized instruments: the MCSA-P2, the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability-Short Form C (MC-SDS) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, Reynolds, 1982), and a descriptive questionnaire

adapted from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) (Flowers, 2003). The data analysis was conducted using SPSS 11.5 for Windows.

### **Survey Responses**

This chapter begins with a description of the characteristics of the participants in the study. The population for this study was the membership of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA), which is considered to be one of the two major professional associations for student affairs professionals. The membership of NASPA is approximately 8,725 individuals (NASPA, 2004a).

The Research Coordinator with the national office of NASPA provided a random sample of 500 NASPA members to provide data for the study. The data included the name, title, institution, and mailing address for each of the members selected for the study.

Once the database was organized, NASPA members were sent a padded mailing packet by U.S. Mail that included a cover letter with informed consent and a request to participate, an informed consent form, a copy of the Student Affairs Social Attitudes Scale, and a postage-paid return envelope. In addition, a pencil was included that read "I helped Jeanna Mastrodicasa earn her Ph.D." as a token incentive; this additional item mandated the necessity of using a padded mailer rather than a standard envelope.

Three weeks after the initial mailing, a reminder postcard was mailed to those individuals who had not completed the survey. The postcard offered to send copies by e-mail attachment to individuals if they were unable to locate their original packet. Two individuals requested copies by e-mail.

Of the 500 selected NASPA participants, usable responses were received from 211 individuals for a response rate of 42.2%. Eight questionnaires were returned uncompleted or with a letter indicating that the recipient had retired from the institution.

### **Sample and Demographics of Respondents**

The study investigated the difference in scores on the Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale MCSA-P2 (Pope & Mueller, 2001) between those who had taken a diversity course during a student affairs graduate program and those who had not. In addition, the study examined the relationship between race of the individual and years of experience as compared to their score of multicultural competence. For this study, the membership of NASPA constituted the population, and 211 student affairs professionals from across the United States participated in this study.

Table 1 provides a summary of the demographic characteristics of gender, race, and sexual orientation that describe the respondents, who are student affairs professionals in NASPA. Respondents were primarily White (85.1%) student affairs professionals. The respondents were equal in gender, and heterosexual (88.7%) student affairs professionals were the majority.

Slightly more than 16% of the participants identified themselves as representing a racial/ethnic group other than White. African-American/Black was the largest of these categories, with 9.0% of the total sample. Three individuals (1.4%) listed themselves as Asian-American/Pacific Islander and six listed Latino/Hispanic (2.8%). Only one individual identified himself as Native American/Alaskan Native (0.5%), and two individuals listed themselves as biracial and two listed themselves as multiracial (1.5% each). There were 22 individuals (10.4%) who identified themselves as not being

heterosexual, with 20 individuals listing themselves as gay or lesbian (9.5%) and two individuals identifying themselves as bisexual (0.9%).

Table 1  
Gender, Race, and Sexual Orientation of Respondents (N=211)

Variable	n	%
Gender		
Female	106	50.2%
Male	105	49.8%
Race		
Caucasian/White	177	83.9%
African-American/Black	19	9.0%
Latino/Hispanic	6	2.8%
Asian-American/Pacific Islander	3	1.4%
Biracial	2	0.9%
Multiracial	2	0.9%
Native American/Alaskan Native	1	0.5%
Missing	1	0.5%
Sexual Orientation		
Heterosexual	188	89.1%
Gay or Lesbian	20	9.5%
Bisexual	2	0.9%
Missing	1	0.5%

Table 2 provides a summary of the age ranges of respondents. This study's mean age range fell between 41 and 45 years, and the largest percentage of the sample was 51 to 55 years old (19.0%). The majority of the respondents were also older than 40; 62.6% of the respondents reported to be in the age range of 41 or higher. The respondents' mean number of years as full-time student affairs professionals was 17.78 ( $SD=10.78$ ) with a maximum of 45 years and a minimum of 0.

Table 3 provides a summary of variables that describe the current primary functional area within higher education. Nearly half of the respondents (49.3%) indicated that they were in student affairs administration rather than a specific functional area; the next most frequently indicated functional area was residence life/housing at 15.2%. Other functional areas representing more than 3% of the sample included: teaching

(4.7%); judicial affairs (4.3%); career planning and placement (2.8%); orientation/new student programs (3.3%); and student union and activities (3.3%). The remaining 17.1% of the sample occupied positions in 12 other functional areas in student affairs. However, there were 18 categories represented by at least one respondent, and two new categories were added as write-in for other (university relations/development, community outreach).

Table 2  
Age of Respondents (N=209)

Age	n	%
25 or less	12	5.7%
26-30	18	8.5%
31-35	16	7.6%
36-40	33	15.6%
41-45	23	10.9%
46-50	28	13.3%
51-55	40	19.0%
56-60	26	12.3%
61-65	10	4.7%
66 or older	5	2.4%
Missing	2	0.9%

The participants in this sample represented a broad range of position levels, but the majority of them were at a supervisory level or higher: assistant dean/assistant director (6.67%), associate dean/associate director (10.9%), director (13.7%), dean (11.8%), assistant vice-president/vice-president/president (32.2%). Master's and doctoral students made up 4.7% of the respondents, and faculty members were 6.6%. Entry-level positions within student affairs comprised the remaining participants, with advisor/counselor/coordinator (4.3%) and residence hall director/area director (6.2%) constituting the remainder.

Table 4 provides a summary of the current primary status of the respondent. The largest group was the most senior in status, with 32.2% of the respondents indicating that they were an assistant vice-president, vice-president, or president at an institution of

higher education. The next three largest groups are also indicative of a more senior status: 13.7% responded that they were a director, 11.8% responded that they were deans, and 10.9% responded that they were an associate dean/associate director.

**Table 3**  
**Primary Professional Functional Area (N=211)**

Variable	<i>n</i>	%
Student Affairs Administration	104	49.3%
Residence Life/Housing	32	15.2%
Teaching	10	4.7%
Judicial Affairs	9	4.3%
Student Union and Activities	7	3.3%
Orientation/New Student Programs	7	3.3%
Academic Affairs	6	2.8%
Career Planning/Placement	6	2.8%
Recruitment/Retention	4	1.9%
Financial Aid	4	1.9%
Multicultural Affairs	3	1.4%
Counseling	2	0.9%
Graduate Student Organizations	2	0.9%
Health/Drug and Alcohol Education	2	0.9%
International Students	2	0.9%
Leadership Development	2	0.9%
Admissions	1	0.5%
Community Outreach	1	0.5%
GLBT Student Services	1	0.5%
President	1	0.5%
University Relations/Development	1	0.5%
Other	1	0.5%

Table 5 provides a summary of the current work settings of the respondents, including enrollment size, institutional type, and the percentage of campus that is White. Respondents' current institution enrollment size varied; the largest group was 2,000 to 9,999 students, with 36.5% of the respondents indicating that size. The next largest enrollment size was 10,000 to 19,999 students with 21.8%; these institutions represented a similar percentage of the respondents with 20.9% at institutions of less than 2,000 students. That indicates that more than half of the respondents (57.4%) work at an

institution with less than 10,000 students. Student affairs professionals at four-year institutions represented 92.5% of the sample, with 53.6% of the total respondents working at four-year private institutions. Two-year institutions only provided 4.7% of the participants.

More than half of the respondents (62.1%) are on campuses with more than 80% White student populations. Figure 1 and Table 6 indicate the percentages of White students on the respondents' campuses. The percentage of White student population on the respondents' campuses had a range of 1% to 99%, with a mean score of 76.19% and a median of 85% and a standard deviation of 20.14%. The mean response for percentage of institutional enrollment that is White was 76.19 ( $SD=20.14$ ) with a maximum of 99% and a minimum of 1%.

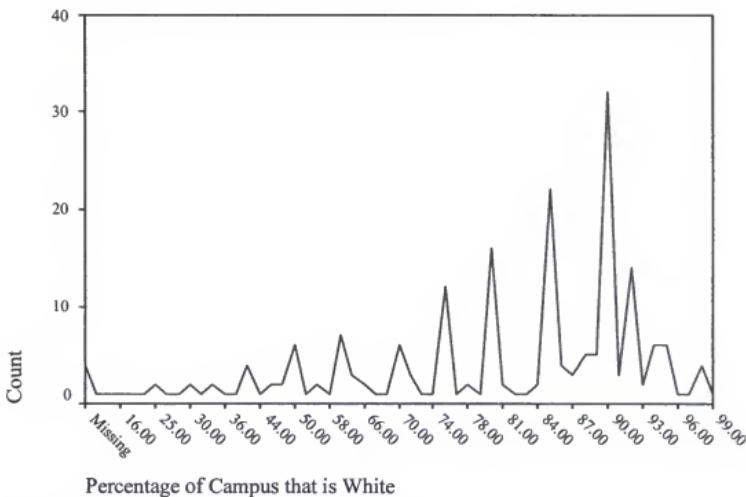


Figure 1. Percentage of White Students on Campus

Table 4  
Current Primary Status in Student Affairs (N=210)

Status	n	%
Masters/doctoral student	10	4.7%
Faculty member	14	6.7%
Advisor/counselor/coordinator	9	4.3%
Residence hall director/area director	13	6.2%
Assistant dean/assistant director	14	6.6%
Associate dean/associate director	23	11.0%
Director	29	13.7%
Dean	25	11.8%
Assistant vice-president/vice-president/ President	68	32.2%
Other	5	2.4%
Missing	1	0.5%

#### Student Affairs Graduate Programs and Diversity Course Requirements

Table 7 provides a summary of respondents' student affairs graduate program participation, the location of that student affairs graduate program by NASPA Region. NASPA is made up of seven geographical regions across the U.S. and includes various foreign countries in an International region (NASPA, 2004b). However, this study did not have any participants living in a foreign country. The majority of respondents (75.8%) indicated that they had completed a master's degree in student affairs, while the remaining 24.2% indicated that they had either not yet completed a master's degree in student affairs or they had indicated that they had earned degrees in other disciplines instead.

The student affairs graduate programs indicated by the participants included all of the Carnegie Classifications (2000). The participants earned graduate degrees at more than 100 institutions, in 39 states and the District of Columbia. Those states were categorized into their NASPA Region, which are organized geographically (see Appendix D for map by NASPA Region). The largest representation of NASPA Region

Table 5  
Current Work Setting (N=211)

Variable	n	%
Institutional Enrollment		
30,000 or more	19	9.0%
20,000 to 29,999	25	11.8%
10,000 to 19,999	46	21.8%
2,000 to 9,999	77	36.5%
less than 2,000	44	20.9%
Type of Institution		
4 year Private	113	53.6%
4 year Public	82	38.9%
2 year Public	10	4.7%
Retired	3	1.4%
Other (residential high school, Law school, graduate only univ.)	3	1.5%
NASPA Region of Current Work Setting		
Region IV-E	48	22.7%
Region III	46	21.8%
Region II	42	19.9%
Region I	27	12.8%
Region VI	23	10.9%
Region IV-W	18	8.5%
Region V	7	3.3%

Table 6  
Percentage of Campus that is White (N=207)

	n	%
1-9 percent	1	0.5%
10-19 percent	2	2.0%
20-29 percent	8	3.8%
30-39 percent	5	2.4%
40-49 percent	9	4.3%
50-59 percent	11	5.2%
60-69 percent	13	6.2%
70-79 percent	27	12.8%
80-89 percent	61	28.9%
90-100 percent	70	33.2%
Missing	4	1.9%

for graduate institution was Region IV-E (27.4%), which consists of states in the Midwest. Region III (southeastern U.S.) had the next largest participation rate of 18.1%, with 16.1% coming from Region II (mid-Atlantic U.S.) and 10.4% from Region I

(northeastern U.S.). While there was some participation from those who earned degrees in the western part of the U.S., less than 20% of the respondents came from that part of the country. These numbers reflect the same general makeup of the membership of NASPA, which has Regions III and IV-E as its two largest regions, and Region II with the next largest region (NASPA, 2004b).

Table 8 provides the results of how the respondents described the diversity requirement in their student affairs graduate program. Respondents were asked about the curriculum within that student affairs graduate program, and whether or not a diversity course was a requirement. Using the items from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs—Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) (Flowers, 2003), this study obtained descriptive information regarding the existence of a required diversity course in the core curriculum of student affairs graduate programs as completed by the respondent. The respondents predominantly indicated (72.5%) that there was no such diversity course requirement within that program.

Only 58 respondents (27.4%) indicated that they had some form of diversity course requirement; those options included at least one single course (8.5%); at least one single course with a common syllabus and at least some commonly shared readings across all sections (6.6%); at least one required course selected by students among a list of courses from a variety of disciplines (3.8%); and several required courses with significant diversity content as part of a curriculum (8.5%). For respondents who stated that they did not have a master's degree in student affairs or did not respond, they were coded as "no diversity course requirement."

Participants were also asked if they did have a diversity requirement, was there a way to be exempt from the requirement or could they avoid studying issues of diversity in the U.S. by studying diversity outside of the U.S. Only two respondents (0.9%) indicated that exemption was an option, and only five (2.4%) respondents indicated that they could study outside the U.S. to meet the requirement.

Table 7  
Master's Degree Program Characteristics (N=211)

Variable	n	%
<b>Program</b>		
Student Affairs Graduate Program	160	75.8%
Other Graduate Program	51	24.2%
<b>NASPA Region of Student Affairs Graduate Program</b>		
Region IV-E	60	28.4%
Region III	38	18.0%
Region II	34	16.1%
Region I	22	10.4%
Region IV-W	17	8.1%
Region VI	11	5.2%
Region V	5	2.4%
Missing	24	11.4%
<b>Carnegie Classification of Graduate Program</b>		
Doctoral/Research		
Universities—Extensive	82	38.9%
Doctoral/Research		
Universities—Intensive	42	19.9%
Masters Colleges and Universities I	40	19.0%
Master's Colleges and Universities II	23	10.9%
Missing	24	11.4%

### **Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2**

Table 9 summarizes the respondents' scores on Pope and Mueller's (2001) Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2). The score is a summation of the individual scores on the 34-item instrument with a 7-point Likert scale per the instructions from the instrument author (Mueller, 2003).

Table 8

Diversity Course Requirement (*N*=211)

	<i>n</i>	%
Diversity Course Requirement		
No Diversity Course Requirement	153	72.5%
At Least One Single Course	18	8.5%
At Least One Single Course		
Common Syllabus/Readings	14	6.6%
At Least One Requirement Course		
Selected by Students	8	3.8%
Several Required Courses	18	8.5%
Possibility of Exemption to Diversity		
Course Requirement	2	0.9%
Option to Study Diversity Issues by		
Studying Diversity Outside of U.S.	5	2.4%

The MCSA-P2 (Mueller and Pope, 2001) was scored according to instructions by the lead author. Individual scores were computed by summing the responses from all 34 items on the survey. Figure 2 provides those scores. Scores ranged from 101 to 235; the mean score was 182.06 and the median score was 183.0 with a standard deviation of 24.57. The reliability of the individual responses was calculated at a 0.92 alpha.

### Research Question 1

The first research question of this study asks whether there is a difference between multicultural competence of student affairs professionals who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program, and those who did not. Although the number of respondents in this study who have had a diversity course requirement of some type is relatively small (*n*=58), those student affairs professionals did exhibit some difference in the mean scores on the MCSA-P2.

This study used an independent samples *t*-test to determine if the groups are significantly different in terms of the independent variable; in this case, the existence of a

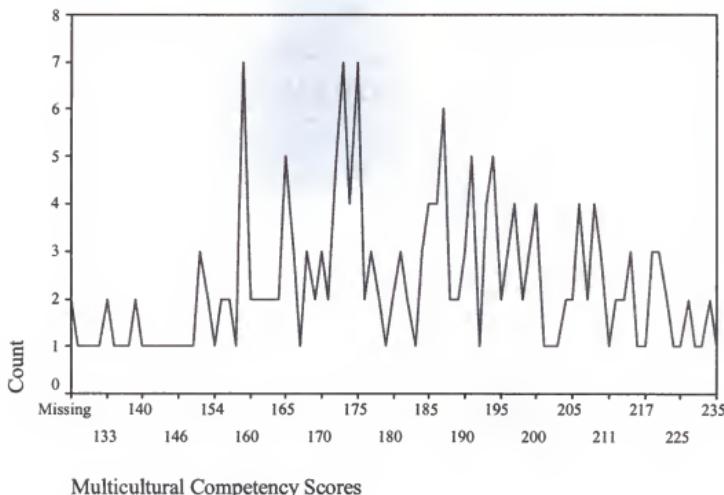


Figure 2. Respondents Scores on the MCSA-P2

diversity course is the independent variable. Those individuals who had a diversity course requirement reported a mean score of 184.43 on the MCSA-P2 ( $n=58$ ,  $SD=24.08$ ), while those who did not have a diversity course requirement reported a mean score of 181.15 ( $n=151$ ,  $SD=24.77$ ). However, the independent samples  $t$ -test showed that there was no significant difference between the conditions ( $t=-0.863$ ,  $df=207$ ,  $p=0.647$ , two-tailed). Table 9 shows the results from the MCSA-P2, comparing those who had a diversity course and those who did not.

### Research Question 2

The second research question asks what the relationship is between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the race of student affairs

professionals. This study used an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to learn if there were significantly different values for the dependent variable of multicultural competence.

Table 10 shows the results.

Table 9 (N=209)

Multicultural Competence Scores by Diversity Course Requirement

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Standard Error Mean
Diversity Course Requirement	184.43	24.08	3.162
No Diversity Course Requirement	181.15	24.77	2.015

The various racial categories were condensed into two categories of Caucasian/White and non-White (which included African-American/Black, Asian-American/Pacific Islander, Latino/Hispanic, Native American/Alaskan Native). King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) also precluded running the analyses within the cultural groups due to the small number of participants, and chose to examine differences by racial/ethnic background by comparing responses of participants of color with those of their White counterparts. In this study, there were only fourteen respondents who identified as anything other than Caucasian or African-American/Black, suggesting the collapse of categories into Caucasian/White and non-White. Although King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) cautioned against assuming similarity across ethnic groups and ignoring any such differences between groups, this process provides the best opportunity to assess differences across race. Using a one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA), the analysis of data showed that there was a significant effect of the race of student affairs professionals on the scores of multicultural competence ( $F_{1,206}=6.766$ ,  $p<.05$ ).

When further comparing the mean scores of multicultural competence by race by comparing each category, the two Multiracial respondents had the highest mean score

with a 215.50. In descending order, the lone Native American/Alaskan Native respondent had the highest mean score with a 213.00; Asian-American/Pacific Islander respondents had the next highest mean score with a 204.00 score; and the African-American respondents had a mean score of 194.16, and the biracial respondents had a mean score of 180.00. All four of those categories scored higher than the majority category of respondents, which was Caucasian/White, which showed a mean score of 179.84 on the MCSA-P2. The Latino/Hispanic respondents scored a 170.67, with the lowest score among the participants. However, there were fourteen respondents for all of the categories except Caucasian/White and African-American/Black. Using a one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) comparing the individual races, the data showed that there was a significant effect of the race of student affairs professionals ( $F_{6,201}=2.548, p<.05$ ).

### **Research Question 3**

The third research questions asks what the relationship is between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the years of experience of student affairs professionals. This study used a correlation analysis to test the degree and significance of the relationship between multicultural competence and years of experience. There was a significant correlation between years of experience and multicultural competence ( $r=0.158, n=209, p<.05$ , two-tailed).

The years of experience as reported by the participants in this study along with higher levels of multicultural competence as assessed by the MCSA-P2 demonstrate a positive relationship. As individuals gain experience in the profession of student affairs,

there are more opportunities for improving knowledge, skills, and awareness about diverse cultures.

Table 10  
Multicultural Competence Scores by Race

Race	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	Range
Race Category					
Caucasian/White	175	180.35	24.25	1.83	101-233
Non-White	33	192.27	23.62	4.11	127-235
Total	208	182.24	24.49	1.70	101-235
Racial Group					
Multiracial	2	215.50	4.95	3.50	212-219
Native American/Alaskan					
Native	1	213.00	--	--	--
Asian-American/Pacific					
Islander	3	204.00	31.00	17.89	173-235
African-American/Black					
19	194.16	20.85	4.78	158-228	
Biracial					
2	188.00	8.49	6.00	182-194	
Caucasian/White					
175	180.35	24.25	1.83	101-233	
Latino/Hispanic					
6	170.67	25.22	10.30	127-202	
Total	191	181.71	24.67	1.79	101-235

### Other Data Analyses

A two-way between subjects analysis of variance was conducted, with multicultural competence score as the dependent variable, in order to compare those who did not have a diversity course requirement by racial category, and those who did have the requirement by racial category. The respondents were broken into two categories for race: White and Non-White. Table 11 reports the results.

There was a significant difference between those who were White and Non-White ( $F_{1,208}=6.911, p=0.009$ ). However, the main effect of whether those who had a diversity course as compared to those who did not was not significant ( $F_{1,207}=0.41, p=0.523$ ). There was no significant interaction between the factor of whether or not the respondent had taken a diversity course and whether the respondent was categorized into White or Non-White ( $F_{1,208}=0.494, p=0.483$ ).

Table 11  
Multicultural Competence Scores by Diversity Course Category and Racial Category  
(N=190)

Diversity Course Req.	Race Category	M	SD	n
No diversity course req	Caucasian/White	180.09	24.61	129
	Non-White	189.43	24.10	21
	Total	181.39	24.67	150
Some diversity course req	Caucasian/White	181.09	23.48	46
	Non-White	197.25	22.91	12
	Total	184.43	24.08	58
Total	Caucasian/White	180.35	24.25	175
	Non-White	192.57	23.22	28
	Total	182.24	24.49	208

When comparing the multicultural competence scores by the respondents' current work setting categorized into their NASPA regions, a one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that there is no significant difference by region ( $F_{(6,202)}=0.146, p<0.05$ ). Table 12 shows that the highest mean scores of multicultural competence were reported in Regions IV-E and IV-W, which include the Midwestern states within the United States. Those regions run as far east as Ohio and as far west as Colorado, and as south as Arkansas and Oklahoma. The lowest mean scores of multicultural competence were reported in Regions III and V; the southeastern states make up Region III, and the northwestern states are in Region V. Regardless, the mean scores were very similar between the regions and only showed slight differences of no significance.

This study also compared the respondents' scores of multicultural competence by other demographic variables such as gender and sexual orientation. There was no statistically significant difference when compared by gender ( $F_{(1,207)}=0.068, p<0.05$ ) or by sexual orientation ( $F_{(2,205)}=1.79, p<0.05$ ) when a one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) is conducted. However, Table 13 shows that the reported scores of

multicultural competence by gender were extremely similar but there was a difference when the respondents self-identify as gay, lesbian, or bisexual.

Table 12

Multicultural Competence Scores by NASPA Region of Current Work Setting

NASPA Region	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Region IV-W	18	184.83	22.32
Region IV-E	47	183.15	23.44
Region I	27	182.15	25.33
Region II	42	182.14	20.96
Region V	7	180.86	45.94
Region III	45	180.09	27.00
Region VI	23	179.83	23.15

Table 13

Multicultural Competence Scores by Gender and Sexual Orientation (N=209)

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Gender</b>			
Female	105	181.62	24.40
Male	104	182.51	24.84
<b>Sexual Orientation</b>			
Heterosexual	186	181.08	24.65
Gay, lesbian, or bisexual	22	190.77	23.09

Table 14 reports the mean scores of multicultural competence by issues related to the current work setting of the respondent, such as institutional size, institutional type, and work status of the individual. There was no significant difference between the groups based on institutional size ( $F_{(4,204)}=1.446, p<0.05$ ), institutional type ( $F_{(6,202)}=0.605, p<0.05$ ) or work status of the individual ( $F_{(9,198)}=0.886, p<0.05$ ). Table 15 reports the mean scores of multicultural competence by functional area of the respondents; there was no significant difference between functional areas in scores of multicultural competence ( $F_{(22,186)}=1.491, p<0.05$ ). Although there does not seem to be much of a difference with institutional size or type, the work status (and expected years

of experience in the profession of student affairs) does show an insignificant increase in the level of multicultural competence.

The two areas that did show a significant difference, race and years of experience, were further analyzed using a two-way analysis of variance. Mean scores on the MCSA-P2 showed that there is a difference based on race when compared by years of experience as well ( $F_{(1, 194)}=8.936, p=0.003$ ). However, there was no significant effect passed on years of experience ( $F_{(5, 194)}=1.275, p=0.276$ ) and there was no significant interaction between the race category and years of experience category ( $F_{(5, 194)}=0.460, p=0.806$ ). Table 16 shows the results.

Table 17 shows the mean scores of multicultural competence broken down by category of percentages of the campus that is White. The highest mean score of multicultural competence was on campuses with the fewest percentage of White students, but there was no significant difference between the categories ( $F_{(9, 195)}=0.821, p<0.05$ ). The numbers of individuals working at campuses with less than 50% White students were definitely in the minority, and the numbers could have provided a more significant difference if there were enough individuals to respond.

### **Summary**

This study collected data in order to further the research conducted by Flowers (2003) on diversity requirements in student affairs programs, and to determine the impact of those diversity courses. In addition, this study examined the relationship of demographic and educational variables on multicultural competence in order to fulfill a future research suggestion made by the authors of the MCSA-P2, Pope and Mueller (2000). This study found that those who had a diversity course requirement had a higher

mean score on the MCSA-P2 than those who did not, but the difference was not significant. This study also found that there was a significant relationship between the race of the individual and their score on the MCSA-P2. In addition, there was a correlation between the respondents' scores on the MCSA-P2 and their number of years of experience in student affairs.

When respondents were compared by race and years of experience, the difference between the groups was significant based on race. The years of experience and the interaction between both variables did not have a significant difference.

Other comparisons of mean scores of multicultural competence in student affairs also showed some differences, although they were not significant, such as sexual orientation or work status, or by current NASPA region. Reported scores by institutional size, institutional type, and functional area all showed that there was no significant difference in scores on the MCSA-P2 between the groups and the initial results did not demonstrate differences worth noting.

**Table 14**  
**Multicultural Competence Scores by Current Work Setting (N=209)**

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
<b>Status</b>			
Faculty member	14	191.57	20.80
Assistant VP/VP/Pres.	67	185.66	23.10
Director	28	183.75	30.44
Dean	25	183.72	21.26
Assoc. Dean/Assoc. Dir.	23	180.78	23.39
Assist. Dean/Assist. Dir.	14	176.86	26.39
Res. Hall Dir/Area Coord.	13	176.54	24.83
Masters/Doctoral Stu.	10	176.10	15.40
Advisor/Counselor/Coord.	9	175.78	26.05
Other	5	165.00	43.28
<b>Institutional Size</b>			
20,000 to 29,000	25	188.68	29.97
10,000 to 19,000	45	186.36	24.59
30,000 plus	19	182.32	28.50
Less than 2,000	43	181.58	21.53
2,000 to 9,999	77	177.61	22.89
<b>Institutional Type</b>			
2 year public	10	188.90	22.02
4 year public	82	184.60	25.72
4 year private	111	180.14	22.83

Table 15  
Multicultural Competency Score by Functional Area

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
President	1	225.00	--
Admissions	1	213.00	--
International Students	2	196.00	35.26
Community Outreach	1	195.00	--
Counseling	2	194.50	7.78
Leadership Development	2	194.00	4.24
University Relations/Dev.	1	194.00	--
Graduate Student Org.	2	191.00	49.50
Multicultural Affairs	3	190.67	32.35
Recruitment/Retention	4	190.50	42.34
Teaching	10	189.60	22.14
Health/Drug/Alcohol Ed.	2	188.50	12.02
Judicial Affairs	9	187.89	30.49
Financial Aid	4	187.25	16.11
Academic Affairs	6	184.50	18.92
Student Affairs Admin.	103	183.54	21.71
Orientation/New Stud. Prog.	7	179.00	26.49
Res. Life/Housing	31	174.71	28.22
Student Union/Activities	7	174.29	23.13
Greek Life	3	167.33	14.98
Career Planning/Placement	6	161.00	14.53
GLBT Student Services	1	156.00	--
Other	1	101.00	--

Table 16

## Multicultural Competence Scores by Race Category and Years of Experience

Years of Experience	Race Category	M	SD	n
1-2 years	Caucasian/White	177.25	24.93	16
	Non-White	211.50	10.61	2
	Total	181.06	26.04	18
3-5 years	Caucasian/White	165.42	22.48	12
	Non-White	183.43	17.86	7
	Total	172.05	22.24	19
6-10 years	Caucasian/White	174.55	21.31	20
	Non-White	192.14	37.71	7
	Total	179.11	26.87	27
11-20 years	Caucasian/White	181.40	25.99	38
	Non-White	199.00	16.68	8
	Total	183.91	25.52	56
21-30 years	Caucasian/White	182.05	23.85	55
	Non-White	193.67	22.44	6
	Total	183.20	23.79	61
31 years or more	Caucasian/White	190.13	21.15	23
	Non-White	188.50	14.85	2
	Total	190.00	20.48	25
Total	Caucasian/White	180.49	24.25	174
	Non-White	193.22	23.35	32
	Total	182.47	24.50	206

Table 17

## Multicultural Competence Scores by Percentage of Campus that is White (N=205)

White Percentage	M	SD	n
1-9 percent	225.00	--	1
60-69 percent	182.77	22.70	12
70-79 percent	185.22	23.08	27
40-49 percent	184.11	26.37	9
90-100 percent	182.77	22.70	69
50-59 percent	182.18	27.60	11
30-39 percent	181.00	24.65	5
80-89 percent	179.67	24.26	61
10-19 percent	173.50	0.71	2
20-39 percent	171.13	30.82	8

## CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents a summary and discussion of the findings, implications for student affairs graduate programs, and suggestions for future research. The purpose of the study was to assess the impact of a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program by examining the level of multicultural competence within a selected sample of student affairs professionals in the United States, using the model of multicultural competence designed by Pope and Reynolds (1997). The study compared the difference in responses on the Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2) (Pope & Mueller, 2001) between those who had taken a diversity course during a student affairs graduate program and those who did not. In addition, the study examined the relationship between race of the individual and years of experience as compared to their score of multicultural competence.

Specifically, this study addressed the following questions:

1. Is there a difference between multicultural competence of student affairs professionals who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program, and those who did not?
2. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the race of student affairs professionals?
3. What is the relationship between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the years of experience of student affairs professionals?

Student affairs professionals were surveyed to identify demographic characteristics and their self-reported levels of multicultural competence, as well as information about their educational background and the requirement of a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program. A sample of members of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) participated in the study. The study utilized three self-report measures: The Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2) (Pope and Mueller, 2000); the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability-Short Form C (MC-SDS) (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960, Reynolds, 1982), and a descriptive questionnaire adapted from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) (Flowers, 2003).

### **Summary and Discussion of Findings**

#### **Sample and Demographics of Respondents**

The study investigated the difference in responses on the Multicultural Competence for Student Affairs-Preliminary 2 Scale (MCSA-P2) (Pope & Mueller, 2001) between those who had taken a diversity course during a student affairs graduate program and those who did not. In addition, the study examined the relationship between race of the individual and years of experience as compared to their score of multicultural competence.

The sample of student affairs professionals in this study was different than the other two published studies using the MCSA-P2 as an instrument due to its population and selection of the sample. The population was the membership of the National Association of Student Affairs Professionals (NASPA), and the random selection of the membership provided the sample. One previous study using the MCSA-P2 surveyed 534

student affairs professionals from a different student affairs professional association, the American College Personnel Association (ACPA) (Mueller & Pope, 2001); the other surveyed 131 students, staff, and diversity educators at four college campuses (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003).

The national membership of NASPA provided a different population of student affairs professionals for this study, which resulted in different demographics than the previous two studies. This study surveyed older and more experienced student affairs professionals, who provided different racial demographics than previous studies using the MCSA-P2 (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Mueller & Pope, 2001). Mueller and Pope (2001)'s mean age was 34.2 years, and the largest percentage of their sample was the age range of 25 to 29 years old (28.7%) in their study of student affairs professionals. This study's mean age range fell between 41 and 45 years, and the largest percentage of the sample was 51-55 years old (18.6%). The majority of the respondents were also older than 40; 62.4% of the respondents reported to be in the age range of 41 or higher.

King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) stated that approximately 25% of its participants were people of color, and Mueller and Pope (2001) used only White respondents by discarding surveys from those who did not identify themselves as White. This study had nearly 15% of the participants identify themselves as representing a racial/ethnic group other than White.

The participants in this sample also represented a broad range of position levels, but the majority were at a supervisory level or higher of responsibility and about half of the respondents worked in student affairs administration. The respondents primarily worked at four-year institutions, and more than half of the respondents (58.2%) worked at

institutions with fewer than 10,000 students. Although the percentage of White students on the respondents' campuses ranged from nearly none to nearly all, the mean percentage of White students was 76.55.

### **Student Affairs Graduate Programs and Diversity Course Requirements**

A majority of respondents (75.8%) had earned a master's degree in student affairs. Those states in which they earned their master's degrees were categorized by NASPA Region, which are organized geographically.

Respondents were asked about the curriculum within that student affairs graduate program, and whether or not a diversity course was a requirement. Using the items from the Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs—Diversity Requirements (SSAMP-DR) (Flowers, 2003), this study obtained descriptive information regarding the existence of a required diversity course in the core curriculum of student affairs graduate programs as completed by the respondent. Only 58 respondents (27.4%) indicated that they had some form of diversity course requirement; those options included at least one single course (8.5%); at least one single course with a common syllabus and at least some commonly shared readings across all sections (6.6%); at least one required course selected by students among a list of courses from a variety of disciplines (43.8%); and several required courses with significant diversity content as part of a curriculum (8.5%). Participants were also asked if they did have a diversity requirement, was there a way to be exempt from the requirement or could they avoid studying issues of diversity in the U.S. by studying diversity outside of the U.S. Only two respondents (0.9%) indicated that exemption was an option, and only five (2.4%) respondents indicated that they could study outside the U.S. to meet the requirement.

Flowers' (2003) research showed that 74% of the 53 institutions responding to his survey had a diversity course requirement in their student affairs graduate program, and an additional 8% reported that they were in the process of instituting such a requirement. Of those 39 student affairs graduate programs that did have a diversity course, all of them had at least one required course and that would be adequate to fulfill the requirement (Flowers, 2003). Twenty-five percent of those programs with a diversity course requirement have had that requirement in place for at 10 years or more, and 75% of those had been place for at least five years (Flowers, 2003). Among the types of diversity courses offered, 23 student affairs programs offered at least one single course, eight offered at least one single course with a common syllabus and at least some commonly shared readings across all sections, four offered at least one required course selected by students among a list of courses from various disciplines, and four offered at least several required courses with significant diversity content (Flowers, 2003). None of the programs reported that they had several required courses with significant diversity content as part of a curriculum (Flowers, 2003).

This study sampled the population of the membership of NASPA. As such, this study assessed an older population of student affairs professionals, of whom a majority (75.5%) had earned their graduate degree more than 10 years before the Flowers (2003) study about diversity course requirements in student affairs graduate programs. In addition, not all student affairs professionals have completed graduate work in student affairs. As a result, only a minority of respondents (27.4%) had taken a diversity course through their graduate degree program.

## **Multicultural Competence in Student Affairs-Preliminary 2**

The MCSA-P2 (Mueller and Pope, 2001) was scored according to instructions by the lead author. Individual scores were computed by summing the responses from all 34 items on the survey. Scores ranged from 101 to 235; the mean score was 182.06 and the median score was 183.0 with a standard deviation of 24.57..

The two previously published studies using the MCSA-P2 also had similar scores. The original version of the instrument, the MCSA-P with 48 items, showed a range of 116-236 and a median score of 199 (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). Mueller (personal communication, February 22, 2004) stated that the results found in this study are similar to his own research.

The results of this study showed that student affairs professionals demonstrated their knowledge, awareness, and skills of multicultural competency within student affairs on the MCSA-P2. Although there were differences amongst groups of respondents who participated in this study, the overall results showed that the participants demonstrated similar results.

### **Research Question 1**

The first research question of this study asks whether there is a difference between multicultural competence of student affairs professionals who have had a diversity course in their student affairs graduate program, and those who did not. Although the number of respondents in this study who have had a diversity course requirement of some type is relatively small ( $n=58$ ), those student affairs professionals did exhibit some difference in the mean scores on the MCSA-P2.

Those individuals who had a diversity course requirement reported a mean score of 184.43 on the MCSA-P2 ( $n=58$ ,  $SD=24.08$ ), while those who did not have a diversity course requirement reported a mean score of 181.15 ( $n=151$ ,  $SD=24.77$ ). However, the independent samples t-test showed that there was no significant difference between the conditions ( $t=-1.118$ ,  $df=190$ ,  $p=.265$ , two-tailed).

This study showed that there are some benefits to taking a diversity course as compared to those who did not. Although the mean scores for the two groups does show some difference, the low number of respondents who had a diversity course indicate that such diversity courses are a more recent occurrence in student affairs graduate programs. Future research on this same issue could be conducted with more recent graduates.

### **Research Question 2**

The second research question asks what the relationship is between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the race of student affairs professionals. Using two groups of Caucasian/White and non-White by collapsing the responses, the means of the score of multicultural competence from the MCSA-P2 showed a difference between the Caucasian/White and non-White participants, with a 179.84 mean score for Caucasians/White respondents and a 192.57 mean score for the non-White respondents. The data showed that there was a significant effect of the race of student affairs professionals on the scores of multicultural competence when comparing them by Caucasian/White and non-White ( $F_{1,206}=6.766$ ,  $p>.05$ ).

When further comparing the mean scores of multicultural competence by race by comparing each category, four of the racial minority categories (Native American/Alaskan Native, Asian-American/Pacific Islander, African-American/Black,

and biracial) showed higher mean scores on the MCSA-P2 than Caucasian/White respondents, whose mean score was 180.35 on the MCSA-P2. The Latino/Hispanic respondents scored a mean 170.67, demonstrating the lowest mean score among the participants by racial group. However, these results are likely very unhelpful because of the small size of those categories; there were less than five respondents for all of the categories except Caucasian/White and African-American/Black. Using a one-way between subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA), the data showed that there was a significant effect of the race of student affairs professionals even when compared to individual races ( $F_{6,201}=2.548, p>.05$ ).

Other studies have shown that there are differences in multicultural competence when individuals are members of racial minorities (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Ottavi, 1996). This study shows that there is an insignificant difference between those who are non-White compared to those who are White, with the non-Whites scoring higher. These differences are often due to the fact that minorities are more cognizant of their racial status and related multicultural issues, including knowledge, awareness, and skills related to diversity issues (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003; Mueller & Pope, 2001; Ottavi, 1996).

### **Research Question 3**

The third research questions asks what the relationship is between the reported scores of multicultural competence in student affairs and the years of experience of student affairs professionals. This study used a correlation analysis to test the degree and significance of the relationship between multicultural competence and years of experience.

There was a slightly significant correlation between years of experience and multicultural competence ( $r=0.170$ ,  $n=191$ ,  $p<.05$ , two-tailed). Years of experience certainly indicate more than simple additional years within the student affairs profession; they indicate more opportunities for professional development, interaction with diverse populations, and more ways to increase multicultural competence.

### **Overall Analysis**

A two-way between subjects analysis of variance was conducted, with multicultural competence score as the dependent variable, in order to compare those who did not have a diversity course requirement by racial category, and those who did have the requirement by racial category. The respondents were broken into two categories for race: White and Non-White.

There were significant main effects for years of experience ( $F_{1,185}=8.281$ ,  $p=0.004$ , and race category, of whether the respondent was categorized into White or Non-White ( $F_{1,185}=8.455$ ,  $p=0.004$ ). However, the main effect of whether those who had a diversity course as compared to those who did not was not significant ( $F_{1,185}=1.402$ ,  $p=0.238$ ). There was no significant interaction between the factor of whether or not the respondent had taken a diversity course and whether the respondent was categorized into White or Non-White ( $F_{1,185}=0.460$ ,  $p=0.498$ ).

Previous uses of this instrument resulted in findings that there is a strong relationship between White racial consciousness and multicultural competence (Mueller & Pope, 2001), and that the differences by race on scores of multicultural competence were noteworthy (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) found a significant group by race interaction as non-White graduate students scored a

mean 25 points higher than the mean score of the White students. When comparing years of experience and racial category, a distinction was found based on race.

Several other analyses compared the mean scores between various variables of the respondents, but did not find a significant difference between the groups. Those analyses included institutional size, institutional type, student affairs functional area, and status as student affairs professionals. The teaching status resulted in the highest mean scores on the MCSA-P2 for any of the categories (191.57); the next highest mean score was 185.66 for assistant vice-president/vice-president/president. The years of experience which would accompany a more supervisory or prestigious status such as vice-president showed with a higher mean score of multicultural competence, with the more entry level status having a lower mean score. Similarly, Talbot (1992, 1996a) found that the faculty had the highest level of comfort with diversity issues as compared to students, and the focus on working with diverse student populations within student affairs graduate programs would explain the results in this study.

### **Implications for Student Affairs Graduate Programs**

Many student affairs programs are working to better prepare their students to work with diverse student populations with the increasing diversity of the U.S. population (Talbot, 1996a, 1996b; King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). One way is by requiring a diversity course in a student affairs graduate program; Flowers (2003) found that 74% of the 53 responding student affairs programs did have a diversity course requirement in their curriculum of core courses at the Master's degree level.

The vast majority of this study's participants (72.5%) did not have that requirement when they completed their graduate work. However, the nature of the

population is that of older student affairs professionals as members of NASPA, as more than half of the respondents were older than 40. Although this study did not find a significant difference in the multicultural competence as measured by the MCSA-P2 between those who did not have a diversity course and those who did, the mean scores on the MCSA-P2 were higher for those who did take such a course. Accordingly, the diversity course requirements of student affairs graduate programs are showing some positive results, although insignificant, supporting Flowers' (2003) research. Flowers (2003) suggested that student affairs graduate programs are "making substantial curricular changes that have the potential to enhance student affairs graduate students' multicultural knowledge and skills" (p. 78) as programs reported that they were making plans to institute a diversity course requirement.

King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) found "distinct differences by race: graduate students of color reported much higher frequencies of intercultural contact, both within and outside collegiate settings" (p 125). They recommend that faculty for student affairs graduate programs challenge students to think about multicultural problems from a more complex point of view, in order to help them understand multiple perspectives (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). They say that students "should be able to observe a situation, assess the problem from varying points of view, and develop a reasonable response without doing harm, to any of the parties involved," (p. 132) and suggest the use of case studies with a multicultural component (King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). Accordingly, it is not surprising that race makes a difference in the results of the MCSA-P2.

### **Implications for NASPA**

The sample of NASPA members that responded to this study demonstrated an older sample with more years of experience than any of the previous studies involving the construct of multicultural competence of student affairs. The professional association should consider engaging in efforts to recruit younger members in order to sustain its membership and to provide a new influx of the effects of the shift in student affairs graduate programs.

In addition, the results that showed lower levels of multicultural competence due to lower mean scores on the MCSA-P2 in certain regions of NASPA, specifically NASPA Region III and V, should be passed on to the regional leadership. Such information could be valuable for future professional development opportunities within the regional meetings and publications.

### **Suggestions for Future Research**

There are numerous possible areas for future research within the area of multicultural competency in student affairs, as much of the student affairs literature is limited (Mueller & Pope, 2001). Pope and Mueller (2000) recommend future studies continue to examine the construct of multicultural competence. The construct of multicultural competence as applied to the field of student affairs is relatively new, and the tripartite model of multicultural competence (awareness, knowledge, skills) as applied to counseling psychology has not supported the use of this model through factor-analytic studies for the field of student affairs (Pope & Mueller, 2000).

The two major studies using the construct of multicultural competence in student affairs make up the current research. Mueller and Pope's (2001) study examined

significant variables that are related to multicultural competence including experiences with training and implementation of multicultural programs and policies, White racial consciousness, and identification with a socially marginalized group. King and Howard-Hamilton (2003) assessed multicultural experiences and competency levels of individuals connected to student affairs graduate programs, including students, internship supervisors, and diversity educators. Beyond those two studies and this study, there is little research on multicultural competence in student affairs and more research can add to the literature.

In particular, utilizing diverse research methods and tools can add to the research on multicultural competence of student affairs professionals. Since this study uses a self-reporting measure, there would be numerous ways to overcome this limitation. Mueller and Pope (2001) suggest including qualitative studies as well as comparative assessments of the practitioner's competencies from supervisors, peers, and professors. Relationships and interactions with students might show outcomes related to multicultural competence which could be examined, such as the correlation between the student affairs professional' self-reported multicultural competencies and the climates they affect (Mueller and Pope, 2001).

Future research could also help address a limitation of this study. Two-year institutions were not well represented in this study, nor have they been in the other studies using the MCSA-P2 (Mueller & Pope, 2001; King & Howard-Hamilton, 2003). An examination of the student affairs professionals at two-year institutions of higher education could reflect a different level of multicultural competence because community

colleges enroll more students of color than a four-year institution (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2003). Those results could be compared to those of four-year institutions.

The use of diversity courses within student affairs graduate programs seems to be increasing, with the future student affairs professionals having curricular exposure to diverse cultures and backgrounds. However, this study used NASPA members as its population, and the vast majority of the respondents did not take a diversity course. The respondents tended to be older and had significant years of experience in student affairs. Future research could focus on more recent graduates from student affairs graduate programs and how the diversity course impacted their multicultural competence. In addition, other professional associations within student affairs could provide additional information to compare to this study as well as for further validation of the results.

Other suggestions for future research focus on the use of the MCSA-P2, which could continue to be validated and utilized. Future research could utilize a test-retest study to demonstrate the stability of the instrument, or examine the discriminant validity of the MCSA-P2 where there are low correlations between the instrument and another measurement which would be expected by the authors, Pope and Mueller (2000). There are very few examples of the use of the MCSA-P2 in the current student affairs literature.

Another limitation of this study is its focus on diversity based on race or ethnicity, but leaves out sexual orientation and gender identity. The MCSA-P2 was designed specifically to measure multicultural competence connected to race or ethnicity, and the authors excluded sexual orientation from this instrument. Mueller and Pope (2001) found that social marginalization (sexual orientation and gender identity) of the participants showed a significant relationship to multicultural competence as reported by the

MCSA-P2, and the authors suggest that the finding is a result of the participants' ability to share their own experiences and transform it into student affairs work.

### **Summary**

In conclusion, the results shown here demonstrate that there is initial evidence to support the inclusion of a diversity course within a student affairs graduate program. In addition, it is important to capitalize upon the students' experiences to facilitate the learning environment within the student affairs graduate program, particularly for those who fall within a socially marginalized group such as racial minority or gay, lesbian, or bisexual. Those individuals represent a viewpoint and experiences which can help the understanding of future student affairs professionals about the changing demographics of U.S. college campuses.

APPENDIX A  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



# UNIVERSITY OF FLORIDA

## Institutional Review Board

98A Psychology Bldg.  
PO Box 112250  
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250  
Phone: (352) 392-0433  
Fax: (352) 392-9234  
E-mail: [irb2@ufl.edu](mailto:irb2@ufl.edu)  
<http://rgp.ufl.edu/irb/irb02>

DATE: December 11, 2003

TO: Jeanna Mastrodicasa  
PO Box 113260  
Campus

FROM: Ira S. Fischler, Ph.D., Chair *ISF/dl*  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board 02

SUBJECT: **Approval of Protocol #2003-U-1007**

TITLE: The Impact of Diversity Courses in Student Affairs Graduate Preparation Programs on  
Multicultural Competence of Student Affairs Professionals

SPONSOR: Unfunded

I am pleased to advise you that the University of Florida Institutional Review Board has recommended approval of this protocol. Based on its review, the UFIRB determined that this research presents no more than minimal risk to participants. Given your protocol, it is essential that you obtain signed documentation of informed consent from each participant. Enclosed is the dated, IRB-approved informed consent to be used when recruiting participants for the research.

**It is essential that each of your participants sign a copy of your approved informed consent that bears the IRB stamp and expiration date.**

If you wish to make any changes to this protocol, including the need to increase the number of participants authorized, you must disclose your plans before you implement them so that the Board can assess their impact on your protocol. In addition, you must report to the Board any unexpected complications that affect your participants.

If you have not completed this protocol by December 2, 2004, please telephone our office (392-0433), and we will discuss the renewal process with you. It is important that you keep your Department Chair informed about the status of this research protocol.

IF:dl

APPENDIX B  
LETTER OF INTRODUCTION AND CONSENT FORM

Dear:

I am a fellow student affairs practitioner conducting research on the social attitudes of student affairs professionals. I am seeking your participation in this study because your input is extremely important to this research, which asks questions about social attitudes. The information gathered will not only help complete my doctoral dissertation, but will also contribute useful information furthering research about student affairs graduate programs. I also have the support of the University of Florida Division of Student Affairs for this research.

As an involved member of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, I have deliberately chosen to conduct my research within the membership of NASPA and plan to share the results with the leadership of NASPA. In addition, the chair of my doctoral committee, Dr. C. Arthur Sandeen, has also been very involved with NASPA. I hope that your participation in this study will provide NASPA with good information about its members and student affairs graduate programs, in addition to helping me complete my doctoral dissertation.

Your responses to the enclosed questionnaire will be kept in the strictest confidence and results of the study will be reported in the aggregate so that no individual can be identified. There is an identification number on the questionnaire for mailing purposes, but your name will not be recorded on the questionnaire and any linkage between your name and the identification number will be kept secure.

After you have completed the survey packet, please sign the consent form. It will only take you about 20 minutes to fill out this information. You can return the materials in the enclosed postage-paid reply envelope. I would appreciate it if you can return the questionnaire by January 10, 2004, or as soon as possible.

Thank you for taking the time to contribute to this research. Enclosed is a small token of gratitude for completing my survey. If you have any questions regarding this study you can e-mail me at [jmastro@ufl.edu](mailto:jmastro@ufl.edu) or call me at (352) 392-1519.

Sincerely,

Jeanna Mastrodicasa

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APPROVED BY  
University of Florida  
Institutional Review Board (IRB 02)  
Protocol# 2003-U-1007  
For Use Through 12-2-04

A study of social attitudes of student affairs professionals is being conducted by a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Leadership, Policy, and Foundations at the University of Florida. The purpose of the study is to examine the impact of a diversity course requirement in a student affairs graduate program.

#### Plans for Participation

Your participation will involve the completion of one questionnaire, which contains questions about social attitudes. The questionnaire will be used to collect information on your social attitudes as a student affairs professional and your curriculum as in a student affairs graduate program. Completion of the questionnaire will require approximately 20 minutes of your time.

#### Voluntary Participation/Confidentiality

Your participation in this study is voluntary and you may withdraw at any time. Your participation is voluntary; you do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer. I foresee no risks or discomforts to you by involving yourself in this study. There is no direct benefit to you for participating in this study. Your responses to the questionnaire will be kept in the strictest confidence and the information gathered will be used for research purposes only. Your identity will be kept confidential to the extent provided by law. The results of the study will be reported in the aggregate so that no individual can be identified. All instruments will be coded by number and your name will not appear on the questionnaire or demographic information sheet.

Should you choose to participate, please sign below and return this form with the completed demographic information sheet and the completed questionnaire in the enclosed postage-paid reply envelope. You may withdraw your consent at any time without penalty. You will receive a small token such as a pencil for your participation.

Authorization: I, \_\_\_\_\_, have read the procedure described above. I voluntarily agree to participate in the procedure and I have received a copy of this description. I am aware that my responses will remain confidential and that I may decline to participate at any time.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Signature

\_\_\_\_\_  
Date

Further information may be obtained by contacting:

Jeanna Mastrodicasa  
P.O. Box 113260  
140 Tiger Hall  
University of Florida  
Gainesville, FL 32611-3260  
(H): 352-373-7989  
(O): 352-392-1519  
(Fax): 352-392-1888  
E-Mail: [jmastro@ufl.edu](mailto:jmastro@ufl.edu)

Any questions or concerns about your rights as a participant in this study can be directed to:

UF IRB Office  
Box 112250  
Gainesville, FL 32611-2250  
(352) 392-0433

Supervisor Information:  
Dr. Arthur Sandeen  
Professor, Educational Leadership  
200-E Norman Hall  
PO Box 117049  
Gainesville, FL 32611-7049  
Phone: 392-2391 ext. 284

APPENDIX C  
INSTRUMENT INFORMATION

### **Instrument Information**

The MCSA-P2 can be obtained by request through one of its authors:

John A. Mueller, Ed.D.  
Assistant Professor  
Student Affairs in Higher Education  
Indiana University of Pennsylvania  
206 Stouffer Hall  
Indiana, PA 15705  
724.357.4541 (office)  
724.357.7821 (fax)  
[jmueller@iup.edu](mailto:jmueller@iup.edu)

The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale is published at:

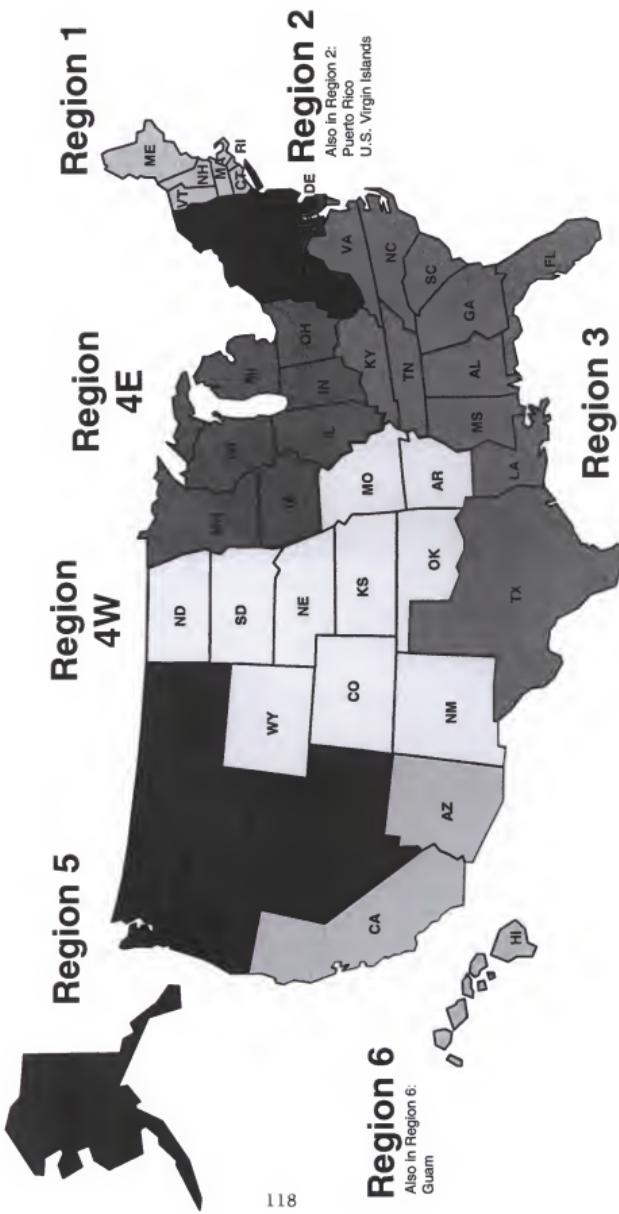
Reynolds, W. M. (1982). Development of reliable and valid short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 38, 119-125.

The Survey of Student Affairs Master's Programs-Diversity Requirements can be obtained by request through its author:

Lamont A. Flowers  
University of Florida  
College of Education  
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APPENDIX D  
NASPA REGION MAP

# NASPA Regional Map



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## BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

Jeanna M. Mastrodicasa is the Associate Director of the Honors Program at the University of Florida (UF). Her responsibilities include prestigious scholarships preparation, academic advising, and managing an undergraduate research program. She reports to the Associate Provost for Undergraduate Education and Director of the Honors Program within the Division of Academic Affairs.

Jeanna is an active member of the National Association of Student Personnel Administrators (NASPA) and teaches First Year Florida, Honors Current Issues in Higher Education, and Honors Leadership Themes in Literature to undergraduates at UF. She has helped create the Lombardi Scholars Program at UF which provides incoming college freshmen a full four-year scholarship plus summer international travel opportunities. She has also submitted proposals to the Beckman Foundation and the National Science Foundation to create new experiences for undergraduate students at UF.

Jeanna received the Davis Productivity Award from the state of Florida for her creation of a weekly undergraduate listserv, the Wednesday Update, in 2001. In addition, the National Association of Academic Advisors (NACADA) has recognized her with two certificates of merit and a scholarship.

She earned an A.B.J. in public relations in 1992 and a J. D. from the University of Georgia in 1995. Changing her career path to student affairs after earning her law

degree, she earned a M.S. in college student personnel at the University of Tennessee (UT) in 1997. While at UT, she was the co-director of the TeamVOLS Volunteer Center.

Jeanna has also held other positions at UF: she has been an academic advisor/pre-law advisor in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences, as well as an assistant dean of students and director of orientation.

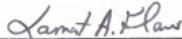
Jeanna lives in Gainesville, Florida, with Jason Hinson and their two dogs, Snoop and Lucy. Her interests include cooking, travel, live music, and Georgia Bulldogs football.

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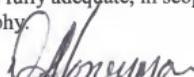
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May 2004



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